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international review of the red cross



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FUNDAMENTAL RULES OF HUMANITARIAN LAW APPLICABLE IN ARMED CONFLICTS

At the October 1975 meeting of the Council of Delegates of the National Red Cross Societies in Geneva, Professor H. Haug, President of the Swiss Red Cross and Vice-President of the League, had proposed that a declaration should be drawn up, setting out in a condensed form the fundamental rules of humanitarian law, and rendering the lofty ideas underlying humanitarian law clearly discernible and easily understandable.

His suggestion was based on the fact that the forthcoming adoption of the Protocols additional to the Geneva Conventions would increase the total number of provisions to some six hundred articles, many of which were somewhat involved. He stressed the need for knowledge of humanitarian law to be widely disseminated and considered that a digest of this kind would constitute a useful instrument for achieving such dissemination.

Mr. Haug's suggestion was seconded by several delegations and, although it was not made the subject of a resolution by the Council of Delegates, yet it was clear that it responded to a general wish. The ICRC representative said that the ICRC was prepared to study the proposal.

Accordingly, to meet this wish, a small working group, composed of a number of experts from the ICRC, League and National Societies, drafted a project which was subsequently discussed at the Round Table of the San Remo International Institute of Humanitarian Law in 1977. The resulting draft is submitted herewith to the general public.

The "fundamental rules of humanitarian law applicable in armed conflicts" state in a condensed form the very essence of international humanitarian law applicable in armed conflicts. The greatest care has been made to keep the text simple and concise. Whenever possible, the exact wording of the Conventions and of the Protocols has been employed.

This text does not possess the authority of an international legal instrument, nor is it in any way intended to take the place of existing treaties. Its only purpose is to facilitate the dissemination of knowledge of international humanitarian law.

The ICRC and League submit to the National Societies this text, which will serve to instruct all those whose function it is, at various levels, to put humanitarian law in practice, and also those who will be called upon to avail themselves of it or to confer its benefits on their fellow-men.

Fundamental rules of humanitarian law applicable in armed conflicts

1. Persons *hors de combat* and those who do not take a direct part in hostilities are entitled to respect for their lives and physical and moral integrity. They shall in all circumstances be protected and treated humanely without any adverse distinction.
2. It is forbidden to kill or injure an enemy who surrenders or who is *hors de combat*.
3. The wounded and sick shall be collected and cared for by the party to the conflict which has them in its power. Protection also covers medical personnel, establishments, transports and *matériel*. The emblem of the red cross (red crescent, red lion and sun) is the sign of such protection and must be respected.
4. Captured combatants and civilians under the authority of an adverse party are entitled to respect for their lives, dignity, personal rights and convictions. They shall be protected against all acts of violence and reprisals. They shall have the right to correspond with their families and to receive relief.
5. Everyone shall be entitled to benefit from fundamental judicial guarantees. No one shall be held responsible for an act he has not committed. No one shall be subjected to physical or mental torture, corporal punishment or cruel or degrading treatment.

6. Parties to a conflict and members of their armed forces do not have an unlimited choice of methods and means of warfare. It is prohibited to employ weapons or methods of warfare of a nature to cause unnecessary losses or excessive suffering.
 7. Parties to a conflict shall at all times distinguish between the civilian population and combatants in order to spare civilian population and property. Neither the civilian population as such nor civilian persons shall be the object of attack. Attacks shall be directed solely against military objectives.
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APROPOS THE NEW CONSTITUTION OF THE LEAGUE OF RED CROSS SOCIETIES

by Jacques Meurant

Second part

IV. THE BODIES OF THE LEAGUE

A. THE COLLECTIVE BODIES

The Constitution Revision Commission, noting some confusion in the Constitution then in force concerning the power and functions of the League's two most important bodies, the Board of Governors and the Executive Committee, was predominantly concerned with adapting the structure to the specific character of the organization as the international federation of National Societies, and to ensure the greatest possible participation by National Red Cross Societies in the work of the organization by reinforcing the functions of its collective bodies. The Commission also wished to limit the duration of mandates in the organization and to make a rigorous distinction between the functions of the different bodies of the federation.

The specific character of the federation, as an association of National Red Cross Societies, should be evident in the active participation of all members in the work of the federation and should give emphasis to their responsibilities in this respect. On the other hand, it should be recognized that certain functions could only be exercised efficiently by a small number of representatives. The Commission therefore had to find a legal solution reconciling these two ideas in the form of two different bodies, one of them responsible for taking decisions and the other for putting them into effect.

General Assembly

At the outset of its work, the Commission adopted the principle that the bodies responsible for taking decisions should include all the National Societies which are members of the federation. Consequently, the Constitution provides that the General Assembly shall be the supreme decision-making body of the League and exercise all powers not expressly conferred on other bodies. This guarantees the widest possible participation by National Societies in the work of the League, since all important decisions must be taken by the General Assembly and therefore by the National Societies. The Constitution makes no provision for delegation of the powers of the General Assembly to other bodies. Only in the event of emergency is the Executive Council or the Secretary General authorized to decide questions which are normally within the competence of the General Assembly. Furthermore, certain powers specified in the Constitution cannot be the subject of emergency decisions and are consequently within the exclusive jurisdiction of the General Assembly. In the course of discussion concerning the concentration of all powers in the hands of the General Assembly, the reasons for doing so were duly recognized, as they justified entrusting the management of the League to 125 National Societies. Certain members commented, however, that a solution of this nature could reduce the efficiency of measures adopted by the General Assembly. These objections were well-founded but the Board of Governors finally decided to give preference to the system now in force in all international non-governmental organizations, since the interest which members have in these organizations depends upon the possibility they have to participate in all important decisions, especially when these decisions influence their activities in their own countries. A member Society will assume greater responsibilities if it has the feeling that it can exercise the fundamental right to discuss all important questions and take the necessary decisions concerning them.

The composition of the General Assembly, which includes all the delegations from National Societies which are members of the federation, confirms what had in fact been a practice for nearly 15 years, namely the National Societies had for this period taken part in the meetings of the Board of Governors, with delegations led by their respective Governors. Under the new Constitution, each Society is represented by a delegation of a maximum of five members, to which may be added experts designated by the Societies. We may thus conclude that the name "General Assembly", taking the place of the former "Board of Governors", more accurately reflects the composition of the body.

The frequency of sessions of the General Assembly was the subject of comment by nearly all the National Societies. About ten of them argued that the General Assembly should meet every year, emphasizing the importance of democratic conduct of the affairs of the federation, so that the Societies would have the opportunity to discuss matters every year. The majority of Societies and a majority of members of the Commission, however, spoke in favour of maintaining the practice already in force which had produced positive results, that is, the practice of holding ordinary sessions every two years.

It was decided that these meetings would normally be held in Geneva, or elsewhere, on the invitation of a member Society. In this connection, in order to ensure application of the principle of universality, a specific clause was introduced into the League's Rules of Procedure, designed to ensure the participation without discrimination of all the member Societies of the League at all the statutory meetings of the League and at all those organized by the National Societies.²¹

While questions of a procedural nature concerning sessions of the General Assembly (convocation, agenda, extraordinary sessions, conduct of business, deposit of texts, voting procedures, etc.) are dealt with more precisely and systematically in the Rules of Procedure than in the Constitution, the members of the federation insisted on specifying in the Constitution certain provisions concerning the quorums and majorities required for the adoption of certain decisions. As in the case of many other international organizations, the Constitution makes a distinction between decisions on important questions—such as voting the budget, admission of a National Society, any change in the definition of the general object and functions of the League—and those on other questions. It was provided that the former would require a two-thirds majority of the member Societies present and voting while the latter would be decided by a simple majority. This simple majority would also suffice for a new subject to be classified as an important matter.

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²¹ *Rules of Procedure*, Rule 2.2: "If an invitation is received from a member Society for the Assembly to meet elsewhere than at the headquarters of the League, the decision to accept the invitation shall be made by the Assembly if it is in session, in accordance with Article 10. para. 1. of the Constitution."

Rule 2.3: "Such an invitation can only be accepted by the Assembly if the Society in the country where the session is to be held has obtained and submitted in advance to the Secretary General of the League a guarantee in writing from its Government that all member Societies will be allowed to send delegations to take part in the session."

The new Constitution has an article on *observers* to the sessions of the Assembly. This article fills a gap which had sometimes been a source of difficulties at meetings of the Board of Governors.²²

The Constitution now provides for four categories of observers: first of all the ICRC as a privileged observer with which the League maintains permanent relations and virtually institutional co-operation; then the intergovernmental organizations with which the federation has consultative status (WHO, UNESCO, ECOSOC, UNICEF, HCR, FAO). In the latter case this constitutes a sort of reciprocity between the League and the organizations in question.

This article also provides for the participation of any governmental or non-governmental organization as observers in sessions of the General Assembly if the Executive Council or the President deems it appropriate. This refers to institutions with which the League might have relations in the humanitarian field or which carry out activities of the same nature as those of the League.

Finally, the Executive Council and the President, if they deem it appropriate, may invite any organization or National Society in process of formation and not yet admitted to the League to participate as observers in sessions of the Assembly, provided that their activities are in conformity with the Fundamental Principles of the Red Cross.

Executive Council

The creation of a new executive organ, the Executive Council, is a direct result of the new conception of the structure of the federation,

²² It may seem strange that some governmental and private organizations may send observers to the International Conference but not to the Board of Governors. The Board of Governors attempted at its 1971 session in Mexico to remedy this shortcoming in the Constitution by adopting Resolution 4 which reads:

“The Board of Governors resolves that:

- (a) National Societies members of the League may be represented by not more than three observers at sessions of the Executive and Advisory Committees of the League of which they are not members. The names of such observers shall be notified in advance to the Secretary General,
- (b) the International Committee of the Red Cross may be represented at the sessions of the Board of Governors and those of the Executive and Advisory Committees,
- (c) other institutions, namely recognized National Societies which are completing their formalities for admission to the League and international governmental and non-governmental organizations with which the League maintains special working relations and co-operates in the humanitarian field in which it specializes, may be invited by the Chairman of the League to be represented by observers at sessions of the Board of Governors and those of the Executive Committee...”.

which makes a clear distinction between the organ of decision, the General Assembly, and the organ of execution, the Executive Council.

Henceforth, there is no possible comparison between the new body and the Executive Committee of the 1969 Constitution. That document did not provide, *stricto sensu*, for an executive body really responsible for putting into effect and carrying out the decisions of the deliberative organ, the Board of Governors. In fact, the Executive Committee exercised the powers of the Board of Governors between the sessions of the Board.²³

In like manner, the functions of the Executive Council differ from those of the Committee of the Chairman and Vice-Chairmen, an organ established in 1965 to study and discuss any matters which the Chairman considered advisable to submit to it.²⁴

The functions of the Executive Council are enumerated and specified exhaustively so as to avoid any confusion between its jurisdiction and that of the General Assembly. The principal role of the Executive Council is to implement the decisions of the Assembly and carry out the mandates entrusted to it by the Assembly. In emergency situations the Executive Council is authorized to take such measures as it deems necessary, but the decisions thus taken must be submitted to the next session of the Assembly for approval.

These provisions ensure a clear distinction between the jurisdiction of the collective bodies inasmuch as the powers of the Executive Council are limited to execution. The idea prevailed of attributing to the General Assembly functions of a general order and of defining the functions of the Executive Council by an exhaustive enumeration. No exception to this principle is provided except in cases of emergency. Decisions by the Executive Council, in such cases, are taken under the responsibility of the General Assembly and in this way the National Societies always have the possibility of discussing, at subsequent sessions of the General Assembly, questions relating to cases of emergency.

It is also interesting to note that those who approved the new Constitution showed their desire to make of the Executive Council as a whole a truly collective body whose members would be guided in their decisions only by the interests of the League. In this connection, Justice Adefarasin, elected President of the League in 1977, told at the first meeting of the

²³ Except for the suspension of National Societies and the dissolution of the League (Art. 9 and 39 of the 1969 Constitution).

²⁴ Because of the new structure and the frequency of Executive Council meetings, it was not thought necessary to maintain this Committee.

Executive Council that he depended strongly upon great co-operation among the members of the Council so that a true "team spirit" would be established.

The National Societies recognized the necessity for a single executive body to enhance the efficacy of the federation's activity, and had to face the problem of the composition of this body. How would it be possible to ensure the widest possible participation by National Societies in the work of the executive body and at the same time enable this body to carry out its dynamic functions? How was it possible to reconcile the election of a National Society to the executive body with the election of members of National Societies in their personal capacities? Finally, how many members should there be to ensure at the same time adequate representation of the National Societies and efficiency of the executive body.

In its second draft of July 1975 the Constitution Revision Commission offered a compromise formula: the Council would consist of the President, of six Vice-Presidents elected *ad personam*, and of twelve National Societies elected by the General Assembly.

This formula was rejected, with the adversaries of election *ad personam* emphasizing that should a person elected be unable to attend he or she could not be replaced until the next session of the General Assembly and that the cessation of activity by the person within the National Society to which he or she belonged would have no effect upon the functioning of that Society within the federation.

Although the principle of election of National Societies to the Executive Council finally prevailed, a compromise was reached, making a distinction between the election of National Societies, eight in number, each of which would nominate a candidate, a member of their Society, who would be appointed as a Vice-President upon the election of that Society by the General Assembly, and sixteen National Societies elected by the same Assembly as members of the Executive Council.²⁵ This solution reconciled two lines of thought, in that it linked the idea that National Societies should be elected as members of the Council and the

²⁵ *League Constitution*, Art. 13:

"1. The Council shall be composed of:

- (a) the President of the League, elected by the Assembly;
- (b) eight Vice-Presidents of the League appointed by the Assembly, in accordance with Article 17 of this Constitution,
- (c) the ex-officio Vice-President, i.e. the President of the National Society of the country in which the League has its headquarters;
- (d) 16 member Societies elected by the Assembly.

idea that National Societies at the same time should designate candidates who would be appointed as Vice-Presidents of the League if the Societies in question should be elected. This formula gave special emphasis to the juridical character of the League as the federation of National Societies.

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The principle of *fair geographical distribution* is now universally recognized and is included in nearly all the constitutions of intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations. It is also provided for in the Charter of the United Nations.

It is therefore not surprising that this principle should have been unanimously approved by the National Societies and introduced into the Constitution as a fundamental rule which must be respected and applied in the elections of all of the organs of the federation and in appointments of the staff of the League.

Problems arose in considering the procedure for putting this principle into effect. It appeared to be difficult to establish a designation of regions in geographical terms. In addition there was no formula universally accepted by states or by international organizations. *Ad hoc* solutions existed, adopted separately by the organs or specialized agencies of the United Nations, but these are not identical for all of them. In giving effect to the principle of fair geographical distribution, each body reaches its own separate decision, adapted to the circumstances.

The formulas proposed by the National Societies and by the Constitution Revision Commission²⁶ could not gain a consensus in the Board of Governors which, at its 1977 session, finally decided upon a

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2. In the elections of the Council, the Assembly shall take fair geographical distribution into account."

Article 17 states:

"The Assembly, in accordance with the voting procedure provided for in Article 11 of this Constitution and taking into account fair geographical distribution, shall by a simple majority of the member Societies present and voting elect eight Society members of the League for the purpose of each of them nominating a candidate, a member of their Society, for appointment by the Assembly to the post of Vice-President of the League for a period of four years. No Society may be re-elected for more than two consecutive terms of office."

²⁶ The Constitution Revision Commission, for example, proposed that a special commission appointed by the Assembly should draw up a list of geographic regions according to which the National Societies would vote. Some National Societies suggested that the General Assembly itself should define four or six geographic regions to one of which each National Society would be assigned.

reaffirmation of the principle of fair geographical distribution in the Rules of Procedure ²⁷.

B. INDIVIDUAL BODIES

The new provisions concerning the individual bodies of the League, the President and the Vice-Presidents, indicate concern to specify their functions exactly.

President and Vice-Presidents

The *President*, as the highest official of the League, is made responsible to the Assembly for ensuring that the League remains faithful to its general object. He carries out his functions under the authority of the Assembly and of the Council.

For the reasons indicated earlier, these functions are also exhaustively defined. He presides over the sessions of the Assembly and of the Council; he co-ordinates the work of the bodies of the League; he represents the League in its relations with the other institutions of the International Red Cross, international organizations and National Societies; lastly, he carries out any other function entrusted to him by the Assembly or Council.

The President may also delegate a part of his functions to one of the Vice-Presidents or to the Secretary General of the League. This is the first time that the Constitution has provided for delegation of functions. While refusing to allow for delegation of the powers of collective bodies, it was agreed that an individual had the legal right to delegate a part of his powers.

The *Vice-Presidents* are primarily members of the Executive Council. In addition, it is their duty to carry out any other function which may be entrusted to them by the President. In this connection, one of the functions of the Vice-Presidents is to represent the President or to replace him in case of necessity.

Another problem which must be mentioned in connection with the elected officials is that of limitation of their terms of office. A choice had to be made between the need to ensure a certain degree of continuity

²⁷ *Rules of Procedure*, Rule 23: "During the election of the eight National Societies each of which shall have nominated a candidate for appointment to the office of Vice-President, as well as of the sixteen member Societies of the Council, fair geographical distribution shall be taken into consideration."

in the exercise of a function and a better rotation, and therefore a better participation of National Societies in all the important functions of the League. The compromise arrived at by the Board of Governors was to limit the terms of the President and Vice-Presidents to four years, renewable only once.

Secretary General

Without taking up the legal problem of deciding whether or not the Secretary General is an official whose position can be compared to that of the other officials, one point is nevertheless important: the Secretary General must be a person highly qualified to assume important responsibilities in the League.

The innovation in the new Constitution relates to the choice and appointment of the Secretary General. The latter is no longer elected but appointed by the Assembly on the proposal of the Executive Council. It is therefore up to the Council to select qualified persons and to propose one of them as a candidate to the General Assembly, who shall then accept or reject the proposal.

This special procedure was provided for various reasons. First of all, the Secretary General must be a person with outstanding qualifications which can be examined by only a small group of Societies. There is the further fact that such a choice requires more time than is available in the course of a session of the General Assembly. In addition, this procedure makes it possible to avoid any "electoral" pressure. Furthermore, since the Secretary General is a paid official this function can only be fulfilled as it should be if the office holder is prepared to devote all his time to it. Anyone who accepts this post must establish himself at the headquarters of the federation and must consequently abandon his previous occupation. One cannot expect a person appointed to the office of Secretary General to accept that post unless his contract offers appropriate conditions. It is up to the General Assembly to establish such conditions in advance and it is up to the Executive Council to work out the details of the contract, with clauses providing reciprocal guarantees.

A very difficult question is: under what authority should the Secretary General carry out his functions?

The answer to this question was not without a certain ambiguity in the 1969 Constitution. In 1977, the Board of Governors considered that the Secretary General should carry out the decisions of the Assembly and of the Council and the mandates assigned to him by other bodies of the League.

To the extent that he reports to the General Assembly, he is responsible to that body; to the extent that he carries out functions entrusted to him by the Executive Council or the President, he is responsible to them. Apart from these responsibilities, the authority he needs to carry out his functions is accorded to him by the bodies with which he maintains close co-operation, the President and the Executive Council. Every time the Secretary General makes a decision, he does so under the authority of the Executive Council or the President, in particular with regard to members of the federation and third parties. It is essential for the Secretary General to be able to refer to the authority under which he discharges his responsibilities.

The functions of the Secretary General are now listed exhaustively. We may note, for example, that the Secretary General directs the Secretariat of the League and is responsible for the execution of the work entrusted to it; he implements the decisions of the Assembly and of the Council and the mandates assigned to him by other bodies of the League; he organizes the different services of the Secretariat, in accordance with the decisions of the Assembly and Council, and appoints the staff of the Secretariat (but appointments of the Deputy Secretary General and of the Under-Secretaries General are made in consultation with the Council).

The Secretary General directs relief or other actions decided upon by the Assembly or Council. In exceptional or urgent circumstances, he is authorized to take all appropriate measures in this field.

With regard to financial matters, it should be noted that the Secretary General is now exclusively responsible for the administration of the budget of the League; he implements the budget, ensures the payment of contributions and, depending on needs, pays authorized expenses; he receives and holds all funds paid to the League for whatever purpose and is accountable for these funds to the Assembly and Council and uses them in accordance with the budget adopted. Finally, he decides on the handling and investment of available funds, after consultation with the Treasurer General.

The specifying and enlargement of the functions of the Secretary General will contribute to the efficiency not only of the Secretariat of the federation but of all its bodies, since the Secretary General is also the *ex officio* Secretary of these bodies.

Treasurer General

The Treasurer General of the League is the principal adviser to the League on all financial matters. The obligation to consult him has been

defined in the Constitution. Appointed by the General Assembly for a period of four years, his term of office is renewable, because it seemed wise to guarantee the continuity of his functions and not to provide any limitations to the duration of his responsibilities.

C. SUBSIDIARY BODIES

As it had under the previous Constitution, the League has two subsidiary bodies in the financial field.

The Permanent Scale of Contributions Commission consists of a Chairman and six members elected in their personal capacity by the General Assembly. Its functions, among others, are the periodic review of the formula fixing the financial participation of National Societies, fixing the quota of each National Society every two years, hearing appeals from National Societies, and studying the cases of Societies with arrears in payments.

The Finance Commission has undergone some changes in structure. It is no longer composed of 14 member Societies designated by the Board of Governors but of a Chairman, five members elected in their personal capacity and the Treasurer general *ex officio*. Its functions are to advise and assist the Council in applying and implementing the decisions of the Assembly on the financial administration of the League. It comments on the annual financial report and on the budgets drawn up by the Secretary General and also on the handling and investment of funds. It may recommend to the Assembly and the Council any financial measures which it deems appropriate.

The consultative system has undergone a rather substantial reform. Experience had brought to light a certain degree of confusion between the Advisory Committees, committees of experts and *ad hoc* or permanent working groups, especially with regard to their terms of reference or vis-à-vis the bodies to which they were responsible.

Study of this question led to a solution which is both simpler and more rigorous, consisting of the establishment by the General Assembly of three categories of consultative bodies.

These comprise first of all the Advisory Committees which are permanent League bodies responsible for advising the Assembly and the Council on specific subjects having great importance with regard to the functions and general object of the League and also on technical questions.

In addition the Constitution provides for commissions of experts assigned to study various specific technical, scientific, economic and legal questions confronting the League and to present the results of their

study and if necessary their recommendations to the Assembly or the Council.

Finally, there are *ad hoc* Commissions which are created to study specific problems arising during the session of the Assembly with the aim of facilitating the consideration and decisions of the Assembly.

In like manner the Executive Council can create temporary subsidiary bodies to study particular problems. The composition of these bodies, the election of their members, the duration of their terms and the procedure for their meetings are henceforth governed by the Rules of Procedure.

It is noteworthy that these Commissions and Committees submit their reports and recommendations to the President and Secretary General of the League in sufficient time to enable them to refer the recommendations to the Finance Commission so that it can report on the financial implications of all new proposals to the Council and to the Assembly.

The new Constitution has established a legal formula for the consultative bodies in general. It is henceforth a matter of adapting the functions and organization of the consultative Committees and Commissions according to the nature of the activities of the League and in terms of the needs of its deliberative and executive bodies. This task was entrusted by the Board of Governors at its XXXIVth session to a working group charged with re-examining the whole consultative system of the League.

V. PROPERTY AND FINANCE

The statutory provisions concerning the resources and property of the federation, financial transactions, the contributions of National Societies and the financial obligations of members have been appreciably developed. Certain details have been stipulated in respect of National Societies which either contest the contributions fixed for them or are unable to pay these contributions. The role of the Permanent Scale of Contributions Commission in this respect has been specified.

On the other hand, with the aim of avoiding any conflict of authority with regard to the preparation and administration of the budget and the handling and investment of funds, the Constitution states that these powers are assumed by the Secretary General of the League.

Financial regulations have been provided to define as completely as possible the procedure for dealing with financial questions.

VI. REGIONAL CONFERENCES

Study of this matter went far beyond the framework of regional conferences in the usual sense and led to major discussions, both in the Constitution Revision Commission and in the Board of Governors, on the problem of regionalization. Various proposals had been presented aiming at the institutionalizing of regions. It must certainly be acknowledged that the National Societies, as members of the International Red Cross on the one hand and as members of the League on the other hand, have absolute freedom to meet one another apart from at the International Conference, the Council of Delegates and the League. The great value and practical importance of special or regional conferences has been generally recognized. It must, however, be clearly established that such special or regional conferences must abstain from taking decisions on questions already decided by the International Conference or Board of Governors and from procedures not in conformity with the regulations in force.

Furthermore, the unity of the Red Cross movement is guaranteed above all else by the International Red Cross Conference, whose mission is to ensure the unity of the efforts of the National Societies, of the International Committee of the Red Cross and of the League; by the International Committee of the Red Cross which has the responsibility of maintaining the Fundamental Principles of the Red Cross; and by the League, the international federation of National Societies and protector and guardian of the integrity and interests of its members. It was therefore difficult to conceive a new institutionalized structure on the regional level within the framework of the Red Cross movement.

Many National Societies made the point that institutionalized regionalization could tend to undermine the Fundamental Principles on which Red Cross activities depend; and that such regionalization could easily fall under the influence and pressure of elements foreign to the Red Cross and might finally threaten the independence of the Red Cross as a whole. As a direct consequence of such an institutionalization of the regions, the National Societies would belong to regional organizations and would be represented in the world federation by organs appointed or elected by the regional organizations. The independence of National Societies would not be respected in the event of a National Society not wishing to belong to the region provided for it in the Constitution. Such a Society would be in danger of being excluded from the bodies of the federation. The apolitical character of the Red Cross Societies might thus suffer great injury.

It was clearly demonstrated that the total change in character resulting from conversion of the association of National Societies into regional groups would be contrary to the Fundamental Principles of Independence, Unity and Universality. It was also obvious that the equality of National Societies and their freedom to present proposals and to vote in conformity with their interests could only be ensured by universal association.

In contrast regionalization in the sense established by the International Red Cross Conferences, by the League and by the ICRC takes the form of regular meetings which consider and deal with special and specific questions of concern to the National Societies belonging to the same region.

For all these reasons, the majority of members of the League did not support proposals made by other members on the subject of regionalization. The need was nevertheless recognized for exchanges of views at the regional level. Technical questions in particular should be discussed at this level. The League could and should promote such contacts, but all the regional conferences should be organized under its auspices and take place in conformity with the Constitution of the League and with the Fundamental Principles of the Red Cross.

The new Constitution specifies that when a member Society requests the assistance of the Secretariat in organizing a regional conference in its country the approval of the Council must be obtained. This measure is designed to ensure the unity of the League and to avoid any separatism on a regional basis.

To sum up, insofar as common interest calls for regional contacts, the Societies of a region are encouraged to convoke regional conferences. However, this constituted the maximum that the Board of Governors could accept without injurious consequences for the Red Cross as a whole and for the League in particular.²⁸ While the principle of institutionalizing the regions was dismissed, the principle of fair geographical representation of the National Societies in all the bodies of the federation was guaranteed.

VII. REGULATIONS

The Constitution Revision Commission attached particular importance to the matter of rules and regulations. Experience had revealed

²⁸ These provisions tally exactly with Mr. Tansley's remarks. In his report he makes out a strong case for the recognition of regional ideas, such as regional planning committees to decide which National Societies in the region most needed help and of what kind, thereby giving expression to desires of regional groupings without undermining the universality of the movement. (Tansley Report p. 88).

numerous instances of confusion or duplication between the previous Constitution and the Bye-Laws, although the former contained provisions of a legal nature and the latter provisions of an administrative nature. Several important provisions relating to the admission of National Societies to the League, Advisory Committees, Regional Conferences, etc., were contained in different regulations.

It was quickly agreed that the mechanism of an international federation of National Societies called for detailed procedural rules which, for technical reasons, could not be included in the Constitution itself. To put the Constitution into effect, it was essential to draw up rules of procedure explaining the Constitution in procedural terms while being in conformity with it. The new Rules of Procedure contain revised and adapted provisions from the previous bye-laws and should serve as a complete instrument enabling the bodies of the federation to carry out their functions. In addition, it was considered desirable to draw up detailed regulations concerning finances and personnel.

We do not intend to present here all the different procedural provisions in the three regulations adopted. Some of them indeed have already been referred to above. One point however is deserving of special attention, the languages used by the institution.

The Constitution of 1969 was quite vague in defining the *official and working languages* of the League and in specifying the exact nature of the languages used. The Board of Governors at its XXXIIIrd session in 1975 therefore asked the Constitution Revision Commission to consider the matter of defining the official and working languages of the League and determining the criteria which could facilitate the choice of languages belonging to each of these categories. It will be recognized that this was a difficult task since the international organizations themselves do not have uniform standards in this respect.

The Council finally adopted the following definitions. The working languages of the Assembly are those in which simultaneous interpretation is provided and in which documents relating exclusively to items of the agenda are prepared. The official languages of the Assembly are those which may be used in discussions without the prior permission of the President. Any delegate using one of the official languages which is not also a working language must himself provide for its interpretation into one of the working languages.

The Council adopted certain provisions concerning the choice of languages. The official languages of the Assembly are French, English, Spanish, Russian, Chinese and Arabic. The working languages of the Assembly are French, English, Spanish and Arabic. In the case of

Arabic and of any other language which may subsequently be recognized as a working language of the Assembly, the member Societies wishing to use one of them are obliged to pay, six months in advance, all costs involved in accordance with an estimate established for each year by the League Secretariat until such time as the Assembly decides that such costs can be covered by the League budget.²⁹

CONCLUSION

Such are the new legal texts which entered into force on 12 October 1977.

They are the result of a vast collective effort which for several years mobilized all the forces of the League, the National Societies, legal experts and laymen, the Committee of the Chairman and Vice-Chairmen, the Secretariat and its Staff Association—all those who realized the importance of what was involved in the construction of the new Constitution of the League and who were concerned to establish the new bases for its future.

Jacques MEURANT

Special Adviser to the Secretary General,
in charge of Statutory Matters

²⁹ During its first session in Geneva in May 1978, the Executive Council, taking into consideration a request from the Arab National Societies, recommended that the next General Assembly of the League should decide to introduce Arabic as a working language of the Executive Council and that the relevant Rules of Procedure should be amended accordingly.

*THE ICRC, THE LEAGUE AND THE REPORT
ON THE RE-APPRAISAL OF THE ROLE
OF THE RED CROSS (IV)*

**Planning for action in natural disasters
and armed conflicts**

Comments by the ICRC and the League of Red Cross Societies

Introduction

The Tansley Report stresses the importance of preparedness for natural disasters and armed conflicts in the following terms:

Red Cross at all levels should place greater emphasis upon pre-disaster planning, broadly defined (p. 74).

According to the Report the following will be characteristic of the future environment of Red Cross action:

1. *Disasters are likely to occur with more frequency and with greater impact, particularly in the developing world;*
2. *New types of disasters may be expected;*
3. *Conflict situations are likely to increase (p. 58).*

Finally, in its conclusions, the Tansley Report states that:

For Red Cross, pre-disaster planning should be applied broadly to include:

1. *natural disasters and conflicts;*
2. *donor and recipient National Societies;*
3. *the League and the ICRC (p. 75).*

The ICRC and the League share, to a very great extent, the Tansley Report opinions on this important question. Naturally, the planning for relief actions differs in some respects according to whether it is related to natural disasters or to armed conflicts. However, there are important common elements in this planning which merit development and joint study by the ICRC and the League.

It is clear that, in principle, the priority for Red Cross action in this field is in emergency situations. It is in the emergency phase that the resources of the Red Cross, in particular its volunteers, should be involved.

It is necessary to find a balance between the need to integrate Red Cross resources in an overall national or international plan and the need on the other hand to maintain the independence which is necessary to enable the Red Cross, nationally and internationally, to act without delay in an emergency and to do so in freedom from organisational or other restraints.

The Red Cross should not seek to maintain a monopoly but to develop its effectiveness, which is based on specific and limited mandates.

1. Natural Disasters

There is no detailed definition of the term "preparedness" in the Tansley Report, and in the interest of uniformity and in order to avoid confusion, we feel that it is necessary to give this definition.

The official definition is given in a joint publication of the League, of the World Meteorological Organization, and of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, supported by the United Nations Disaster Relief Office (UNDRO), and entitled *Guidelines for Disaster Prevention and Preparedness in Tropical Cyclone Areas*.

The definition reads as follows:

Disaster Preparedness may be described as an action designed to minimise loss of life and damage, and to organise and facilitate timely and effective rescue, relief and rehabilitation in cases of disasters.

Preparedness is supported by the necessary legislation and means a readiness to cope with disaster situations or similar emergencies which cannot be avoided. Preparedness is concerned with forecasting and warning, the education and training of the population, organisation for and management of disaster situations, including preparations of operational plans, training of relief groups, stockpiling of supplies and the earmarking of the necessary funds.

From this definition, it would follow that we will have to concentrate on the following functions:

- Legislation,
- Forecasting and Warning,
- Education and training of the population,
- Operation plans,
- Training of relief personnel,
- Relief supplies,
- Finances.

In addition to the listed functions there are two others, tracing and coordination, which are very important; they will be treated under “Training of personnel” and “Operational plans” respectively.

Legislation

The legal basis for all activities related to preparedness and operations on the national level should be found in the national law or in the form of a decree, or any other official government document. It is important that such a document defines emergency, responsibilities and the necessary delegation of authority to the various bodies carrying responsibilities in emergency situations. If such a document does not exist, the National Society, the ICRC and the League should use all possible contacts with the government to promote such legislation. The main responsibility remains with the National Society.

In natural disasters the Red Cross has the *Rules and Principles in Red Cross Disaster Relief*. They have the strength of being adopted by the International Red Cross Conference in which governments take part, and cover most of our needs for legal support when fully applied.

Forecasting and warning

Forecasting of disasters, in most cases, involves a highly sophisticated technology and demands very substantial resources: this is a task which falls within the responsibilities of governments and certain inter-governmental organisations, rather than the Red Cross. Warning of the population may take different forms in different countries depending on the development of communications. Red Cross may play an important role in countries where runners or messengers or even Red Cross radio networks exist.

Education and training of the population

This field gives responsibilities to all components of the Red Cross, and is one where Red Cross can offer substantial services. The National Societies supported by the League should increase their efforts in preparing the population to face natural disasters. It is important that these educational tasks are carried out in close cooperation with the national authorities.

Operational plans

Any National Red Cross operational plan should be an integrated part of a government national plan, based on the authority delegated to the Society. If such a governmental plan is not established, it should be the duty of the Society to influence the government to undertake this planning.

While it is the duty of the National Society to establish its own plan, it should be supported by the League and the ICRC in doing so, maintaining the principle that the plan should be written by people carrying responsibilities in relief operations.

Although it is usually practicable to establish a plan for natural disasters, it is naturally more difficult for a National Society to plan for internal disturbances. However, the fact that the National Societies have a plan, and trained personnel for certain relief functions in natural disasters, may well be useful in situations of conflict.

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In the field of *coordination* and cooperation with other organisations, we may make a distinction between the international level and the national level.

Internationally, the ICRC and the League maintain close cooperation with UNDRO (United Nations Disaster Relief Organisation). Training events have been jointly organised, and on relief operations contacts are permanent.

Contacts are maintained and expanded on a practical level with the other major UN Agencies active in disaster relief, such as WHO (World Health Organisation), UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund), WFP (World Food Programme), FAO (Food and Agriculture Organisation), WMO (World Meteorological Organisation), and with certain regional organisations such as ESCAP (United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Pacific) and PAHO (Pan American Health Organisation), among others.

Our co-operation and contacts with these organisations are satisfactory. However, with UNDRO, which is a coordinating body, much the same as the League but on a different level, a more systematic arrangement for coordination and procedures would be desirable. The Red Cross responsibility here lies with the ICRC and the League.

On the national level, much remains to be done. It is on this level that most of the management problems in disaster assistance are met. It is therefore of utmost importance that the National Society coordinate its activities with other national agencies and international organisations active in disaster situations, in order to ensure the optimal use of available resources. If no such coordination is initiated by the government, the Red Cross, thanks to its special position, could play an important role in this field.

While the responsibility for National Red Cross planning lies with the National Society, the League should increase its support of such planning either by despatching planning delegates or with the necessary funds.

Training of relief personnel

This can be divided into two categories:

- training of personnel at the national level to perform particular tasks in the Society's operation plan, and,
- training of delegates and teams to be despatched to another country to assist in a disaster situation.

The first category is definitely the most important, and the one that will require the most numerous staff. A National Red Cross plan without trained personnel has no meaning. This training is primarily the responsibility of the National Society, but the League has a very important role to play in assisting such training either with instructors or funds. As the main problem today is at the national level, this training should have priority.

Training of delegates and teams (doctors, surgeons, nutritionists, etc.) will take place within Societies which are able to offer such assistance to disaster-stricken countries. Recent experience (Cyprus, Lebanon) has shown that such personnel is of equal importance to meet natural disasters as well as conflict situations. In this type of training the ICRC and the League should take a stronger lead with closer cooperation. In order to ensure that such training is harmonised to the best degree possible, a joint training group could be envisaged. It is in particular with training

of teams that this closer cooperation is required, as training of delegates is undertaken both by the ICRC and the League for their particular needs, but always in cooperation with the other.

One particular function which should be included in the training of personnel is that of *tracing missing persons*. This work, which is traditionally carried out on the international level by the ICRC, is also necessary in natural disasters. There is thus a need for personnel suitably trained in this special field within National Societies. It is clear, however, that the tracing of missing persons poses different problems and has different legal bases, depending on whether the persons concerned are missing as a result of a natural disaster or of an armed conflict.

Relief supplies

In the event of natural disasters, relief supplies may be provided by :

- National Societies,
- local purchases,
- purchases made in other countries,
- relief warehouses in other countries.

In principle, each National Society should have a stock of relief supplies sufficient to enable it to meet the first emergency phase of a disaster. However, many National Societies in disaster-prone countries are not themselves in a position to establish the totality of such stocks and they, therefore, need help from the League and sister Societies. This help can take the form of shipments of merchandise or gifts of money. Basic stocks can be supplemented in the event of disaster by local purchases in the affected country because, generally, all parts of a country are not affected by a disaster; for this the National Society needs to have reserve funds available. The League is in a position to act as a purchasing agent in other countries on behalf of a National Society, often in cooperation with the ICRC. Stronger cooperation in this field would be desirable. Finally, the use of relief warehouses in different parts of the world can be extremely useful provided that they are established and operated systematically.

Financing

Comments on the Tansley Report proposals on the financing of assistance activities, including preparedness, are given in the chapter "Assistance in the event of natural disasters"¹ and need not be repeated here.

¹ See *International Review*, May-June 1978, p. 157-158.

2. Armed Conflicts

Most of the preparations made by a National Society to deal with natural disasters can also be valuable in the event of armed conflicts: notably recruitment and training of personnel, the establishment of stocks and the creation of reserve funds. On the other hand, those preparations which have to do with warning and prevention of disasters are clearly not applicable in the event of armed conflict. It is obvious also that a national plan for relief in armed conflict is different from one applicable in natural disasters, and that therefore the role of the National Society during conflict is likely to be different.

It should be noted that in armed conflicts the *tracing of missing persons* is carried out on a different basis from that applicable in natural disasters. In fact, there are several categories of persons (prisoners of war, civilian internees, detained persons) of whom the parties to the conflict are obliged to provide information. There are precise rules about this in the Geneva Conventions of 1949 and also in the two additional Protocols which were adopted in June 1977 by the Diplomatic Conference. National Societies will find in these texts the legal basis and authority for their activities in this field.

With regard to the best ways of planning relief activities in times of international armed conflicts or internal conflicts, reference can usefully be made to the conclusions of a seminar held in Geneva in August 1963 on Red Cross activities for victims of armed conflicts. Even though it is now fifteen years old, this document ¹ and its conclusions remain very largely applicable and can be re-read with advantage. In addition, the ICRC in collaboration with the League is in the process of preparing a practical manual containing guidelines for National Societies in their preparations for situations of conflict.

Conclusions

While it is evident that the International Red Cross has made, and is making, an effort in the field of disaster preparedness, there is scope for improvement and enlargement of these activities.

In the legislative field the National Societies should pursue the establishment of national disaster laws/decrees, supported by ICRC/League.

¹ *Seminar on the activity of the Red Cross on behalf of the victims of armed conflicts, Geneva-August 1963, Geneva 1965.*

On forecasting and warning, the National Societies should concentrate their efforts on warning and on the training of volunteers as a part of their operation plan. In the training of the population, the Red Cross, due to its massive membership, is in an excellent position to take the lead. The ICRC and the League should make a joint effort in cooperation with National Societies in this field.

Operational plans should be made flexible in such a way that the plan and its organisation, while being prepared for disasters, may also be useful for other situations.

Training of relief personnel to perform within their national plan must be given highest priority.

The ICRC and the League should harmonise and coordinate their training efforts on the international level, in particular with reference to training of relief teams. The ICRC and the League should train people in each National Society to ensure that each Society has a nucleus of trained staff for tracing activities. In the field of relief supplies it seems clear that closer cooperation between ICRC and the League would benefit the disaster-prone countries.

The application of humanitarian law by the armed forces of the United Nations Organization

by Yves Sandoz

The events in Lebanon and the despatch of a UN armed force to keep the peace there brings into focus a problem which cannot be ignored, the application of international humanitarian law in armed conflicts. This problem has two aspects:

- What is the nature of the armed forces which the UN commits or can commit at the present time?
- To what extent are these armed forces obliged to apply humanitarian law?

I. The nature of the UN forces

In cases in which the UN decides nowadays to use armed forces to attempt to achieve its main aim, or at least what this aim was originally,¹ that is, to maintain international peace and security (article 1/1 of the Charter of the United Nations), it does so by undertaking what it calls “peace-keeping operations” (PKO).

¹ Certain writers, notably Rölling, think that the first aim of the UN has now become the search for justice, rather than peace-keeping.

The reasons for PKOs

It is necessary to go over briefly the events which led the UN to adopt this method of action, allowing it to break the deadlock it found itself in due to the non-functioning of the collective security system, initially provided for in the Charter. This system was built on three essential pillars: the possibility for the UN to undertake coercive actions; the limitation and reduction of arms (inseparable from the system, even though mentioned only indirectly in article 47/1 of the Charter); and the peaceful settlement of disputes which threaten international peace.

The idea was that the UN — and especially the great Powers which form its core — should be able to *impose*, if necessary, the settlement of any situation endangering world peace. As Kelsen points out: «In the history of international law, the Charter is the first convention aiming at universality instituting a centralised monopoly of force for the benefit of the community of nations”.¹

This idea itself, attractive as it may seem at first, was vulnerable to criticism on many grounds. We will mention particularly Claude who tries to define the conditions necessary to the satisfactory functioning of such a system, and who shows that these conditions are far from being met in the world as it is organised today.²

As a result it should be a surprise to no one that it was impossible for the Military Staff Committee, laid down in article 47 of the Charter, to fulfil the mission assigned it, that is, to provide for the setting up of the central force necessary for the functioning of the system and to prepare the agreements which should have been signed in application of article 43; for behind these *technical* disagreements which appeared, there was an important *political* disagreement: certain states feared that a United Nations force might become an instrument in the service of other states or groups of states.

The impossibility of organizing a central force and of concluding the agreements provided for in article 43 of the Charter, certainly entailed, on the part of the states, a loss of confidence in the ability of the Organization to maintain peace, and guarantee international security.

As a result, hope of general disarmament, dependent on such ability, dwindled too. Since then, despite some success in arms limitation, we

¹ Kelsen, H. *Théories de droit international public, Recueil des Cours de l'Académie de droit international*, The Hague, 1953 (III), p. 81.

² Claude, I. *Swords into Plowshares*, 4th edition, New York, Random House, 1970; esp. p. 256 et seq.

can see a continual growth of armaments on the planet as a whole, even though the General Assembly has repeated many times that its final aim remains general and total disarmament.

This inability to conclude the special agreements provided for in article 43 and the subsequent failure in the area of disarmament—in other words the collapse of two of the pillars of the original system—could logically give rise to the fear that the third of the pillars, the peaceful settlement of disputes which threaten international peace, could also disintegrate. In fact, however, the UN achieved certain results in this area. As the Secretary-General notes in his Introduction to the Annual Report for 1975, “To have avoided a third world war on a planet bristling with weapons of destruction is no mean achievement either”.¹ It can be asked, of course, whether the UN can really claim credit for this. We will not enter into a useless polemic on this point, but the fact remains that the UN has undertaken actions which, if not always permitting the settlement of disputes, have at least had the distinction of contributing to a settlement, by avoiding or interrupting the use of force.

It seems clear in any case that the UN would not have survived a total failure in the area of the peaceful settlement of disputes, that is to say a failure which would have ended in a new conflict on a world scale. The efforts of the Organization, and in particular those of its Secretary-General, were thus concentrated on the consolidation of this third pillar of the original system, the only one left standing and upon which the Organization is perched in precarious equilibrium. Since the task of the UN in regard to the peaceful settlement of disputes was foreseen within the framework of a global system which did not work, it could not be fulfilled exactly as was provided for in the Charter. However, the desire for efficient action (action outside the framework of the Charter, justified by a “constitutionalist” interpretation of it) drew the Organization too far along a path which in itself threatened the break-up of the Organization, since it was not accepted by all states. The PKOs arose from two necessary conditions, both *vital* for the Organization: to take action anyway with a view to the peaceful settlement of disputes, and not to stray beyond the bounds fixed by the Charter.

Before dealing with the PKOs themselves, we must now briefly touch upon the attempt, mentioned earlier, to allow the UN to fulfil its original peace-keeping role, *despite* the initial disagreements, and thus *in a different way* from that laid down in the Charter.

¹ Introduction to the Report of the Secretary-General on the Work of the Organization, August 1975, UN Doc. A/10 001, Add. 1.

The central idea on which this attempt rests is that the Charter should be interpreted like the constitution of a state, of which none of the fundamental principles can be broken. These principles take precedence over organizational provisions and the division of functions among the various organs. Hence, if one organ is prevented from carrying out a task necessary for the respect of a fundamental principle, another organ is entitled to fill the gap. Thus, for the maintenance of peace, the Security Council is mainly responsible, but if it remains inactive when peace is broken or even threatened, the General Assembly is entitled to act in its place. It can *recommend* actions (this is the only difference with the Security Council's authority since the Security Council can *impose* them) and even, when peace is broken or an aggressive act takes place, recommend coercive measures which imply the use of armed force. An example was the famous General Assembly Resolution 377 (V), called "Uniting for Peace", during the Korea crisis.

This thesis is based on a series of very questionable legal options. Some of them are derived from what Flory calls a "dynamic" interpretation of the Charter.¹ They are based on the existing executive arrangements, interpreted in a very broad way. But some of them, based purely on the fundamental principles of the Charter, go much further, to justify actions which are *opposed* to the existing executive arrangements. In this latter case we can really talk of a "constitutionalist" interpretation of the Charter.

The unease which was felt even before the end of the Korean operation, led progressively to a modification of the untenable position of the pure "constitutionalists". The UN *had* to start out again on a new basis, and it was from this generally accepted necessity that a new form of UN action, the PKO was born. Since that time Resolution 377 (V) has never been *fully* applied, and it is doubtful if it ever will be again.

The name PKO, which appeared in 1956 with the UN intervention after the Suez Canal affair, includes a number of UN actions differing in aims and characteristics, and having a very controversial legal basis, but whose leading principles have become clear with time.

Before examining these principles, we should note that, even though each PKO is different from all others, we can nevertheless distinguish two main types of operation: those which have a purely observational function with no active role, and those which have a surveillance mission, implying a larger physical presence which should have a clearly

¹ Flory, M. L'organisation des Nations Unies et les opérations de maintien de la paix. *Annuaire français de droit international*, 1965, p. 449 et seq.

deterrent effect on the belligerents. It is especially during these latter operations that the UN forces may be required to apply humanitarian law.

Guiding principles of PKOs

The guiding principles for these operations, such as we can distinguish them after more than 20 years of practice, were recalled by the Secretary-General of the UN in the report he was asked to make with a view to establishing a UN interim force in Lebanon (UNIFIL), on 19 March 1978.¹ It seems to us useful to mention them, with brief comments on some.

“(A) The Force will be under the command of the United Nations, vested in the Secretary-General, under the authority of the Security Council. The command in the field will be exercised by a Force Commander appointed by the Secretary-General with the consent of the Security Council. The Commander will be responsible to the General-Secretary. The Secretary-General shall keep the Security Council fully informed of developments relating to the functioning of the Force. All matters which may affect the nature or the continued effective functioning of the Force will be referred to the Council for its decision.”

Two elements are worthy of note in this first principle:

Firstly, we saw earlier that it had previously been permissible for the General Assembly to decide on the sending of UN forces in certain circumstances. This idea has now been abandoned. It is true that the controversy which had developed around the legal basis of PKOs has not been fully resolved. Some see this basis in Chapter VI of the Charter, which would allow the General Assembly subsidiary power to order PKOs: others see it in chapter VII, which would tend to confirm the sole power of the Security Council: and others, finally, would like to see it in a new chapter VI(bis) of the Charter. However, the basis for the controversy has practically disappeared. No one today questions the exclusive authority of the Security Council to order PKOs, even though we must admit that this is for reasons which are as much political as legal.

¹ UN Doc. S/12611, p. 2.

Secondly, the command of the force is the direct responsibility of the Secretary-General, but his authority is very restricted, since every new problem must be submitted to the Security Council for decision. This development has been very marked, especially since the end of the Congo operation, during which the Secretary-General took certain initiatives which were severely criticised by certain members of the Security Council. It must be noted, however, in the then Secretary-General's defence, that the mandate he had been given was extremely vague. It was thus this experience in particular which led the Security Council to give the Secretary-General only very precise terms of reference which were also limited in time.

“(B) The Force must enjoy the freedom of movement and communication and other facilities that are necessary for the performance of its tasks. The Force and its personnel should be granted all relevant privileges and immunities provided for by the Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the United Nations.”

“(C) The Force will be composed of a number of contingents to be provided by selected countries, upon the request of the Secretary-General. The contingents will be selected in consultation with the Security Council and with the parties concerned, bearing in mind the accepted principle of equitable geographic representation.”

Two remarks on this subject:

Firstly, we must point out that one can find certain evidence of opinions favourable to not including in the PKO forces contingents from the countries of the permanent members of the Security Council¹. This was no doubt due in part to the circumstances in which the first UN emergency force was set up, since it was necessary to avoid the inclusion of members from Britain and France, who had recently intervened in Suez. The presence of French forces in the UNIFIL seems to indicate that these ideas have not finally prevailed. It remains to be seen whether the absence of forces from the two super-powers in the PKOs should be seen as being the result of chance circumstances or of a general rule. It seems to us, in any case, that this is a judicious practice, avoiding as it does any risk of confrontation between these great Powers.

¹ See especially the report of the Secretary-General and the Chairman of the General Assembly of 31.5.1965 (UN Doc. A/AC. 121/4), p. 22.

Secondly, the principle of fair geographic representation has not always held good. But the idea that all the large groups of states represented in the UN may be represented in the PKOs has made some progress and is now very generally accepted. We find it expressed in the Appendix to the Comprehensive Review of the Whole Question of Peace-Keeping Operations in all their Aspects, presented in the Report of the Special Committee on Peace-Keeping Operations of 31 October 1974,¹ and elsewhere.

There are, however, practical obstacles to compliance with this principle, owing to the necessity of having contingents of a certain technical level, and to the expenses incurred by the countries providing the contingents. Today, therefore, it should be considered a *right* for the different groups of states to be represented equitably in the UN forces, and not an *obligation* for them to take part.

“(D) The Force will be provided with weapons of a defensive character. It shall not use force except in self-defence. Self-defence would include resistance to attempts by forceful means to prevent it from discharging its duties under the mandate of the Security Council. The Force will proceed on the assumption that the parties to the conflict will take all the necessary steps for compliance with the decisions of the Security Council.”

Since this principle is particularly important as far as the application of humanitarian law by UN forces is concerned, we will come back to it in the second part of this article.

“(E) In performing its functions, the Force will act with complete impartiality.”

“(F) The supporting personnel of the Force will be provided as a rule by the Secretary-General from among existing United Nations staff. Those personnel will, of course, follow the rules and regulations of the United Nations Secretariat.”

These principles do not, however, cover all aspects of PKOs. In particular, the financial aspect, which was the cause of an important crisis, now overcome, is not touched upon. Another aspect not touched

¹ UN Doc. A/9827, p. 7.

upon seems to us to be particularly worthy of mention within the framework of our subject: the consensual aspect of the PKOs.

The consensual character of the PKOs

PKOs cannot be undertaken without the agreement of all the interested parties, that is, the government on whose territory the PKO takes place, the other party or parties directly involved in the conflict, and the permanent members of the Security Council, who may exercise their right of veto in regard to a PKO. Finally, the states who provide contingents to the PKO do so on a voluntary basis.

It is clear that various problems can nonetheless arise, the most serious being that of withdrawal of consent. Can a government which accepts a PKO on its territory, or a member of the Security Council who accepts (or at least does not refuse) the setting up of a PKO, withdraw their consent at any moment, thus threatening to distort completely the result of a PKO which has already begun? The problem has occurred in the past, particularly during the Congo operation. The present solution is to engage PKOs for very short periods of time. At the moment, UNIFIL is engaged in the Lebanon for four months; in Cyprus the UN force to keep the peace is engaged for six months, while in the Near East the UN force responsible for observing the disengagement, and the UN Emergency Force are engaged for a year. So we can say that the undertaking entered into at the beginning of these periods, which must be renewed each time in order to prolong a PKO, is today more than a simple "si voluero" undertaking. It would probably not be questioned during the agreed periods, unless there were an important change in the circumstances.

II. Application of humanitarian law

Having examined these characteristics of PKOs, we now ask whether humanitarian law can and should be applied by UN forces engaged in such operations.

Two aspects mentioned above should first of all be recalled: the PKOs are subject to the agreement of the parties to the conflict and the UN forces cannot therefore constitute an added military force for one of them, especially since they are bound to act "with complete impartiality". Further, the UN forces receive arms only of a defensive nature, and may use force only in self-defence.

The case in which UN forces may be required to apply international humanitarian law applicable in armed conflicts are therefore rather rare. Self-defence is, however, defined in a very broad sense, since it includes resistance to any attempt to impede it by force from carrying out the functions assigned it by the Security Council. Even though it is very unlikely that direct engagements on such a scale as those in the Congo will occur, the use of arms by UN forces cannot be excluded. Let us look in particular at the situation today in the Lebanese conflict, in which the UN forces became involved following the Israeli occupation. There are a number of factions and isolated armed units which are not really under any political authority. The risk of armed confrontations with the UN forces is, under such circumstances, not negligible.

So it is possible that the members of the UN forces may find themselves in a situation in which they must use arms, and anyone faced with such a situation should know the principles of international humanitarian law applicable in armed conflicts. As soon as a weapon is used during a conflict, even in self-defence, certain rules, of which the simplest examples would be humane treatment for the wounded who cease fighting and for prisoners who may be taken following a confrontation, must be observed.

But if UN forces may have to apply humanitarian law directly when they are involved in armed confrontations, they can also have an important role to play by collaborating with those whose particular responsibility it is to see that this law is applied. We could cite for example the responsibilities given by the Fourth Convention to the Protecting Power or its substitute in occupied territories. UN forces may, for example, facilitate the movements of, and, as far as possible, protect delegates of the Protecting Power or, where there is no Protecting Power, of the ICRC whose task it is, under the Fourth Convention, to bring help to civilians isolated by the conflict.

It is important, therefore, for humanitarian reasons, that all officers and other ranks of UN forces engaged in PKOs should be trained, to a degree varying with rank, in humanitarian law. Besides, there is no doubt that the non-respect of the principles of humanitarian law, which is nowadays practically universally accepted, would have an extremely detrimental effect on the image of the UN forces and hence of the UN itself.

It remains for us to examine whether the UN, or more exactly the Security Council, under whose authority the PKOs are placed, and the Secretary-General, who is in command of the forces, are obliged to see that humanitarian law applicable in armed conflicts is applied by the UN forces.

The UN itself, as an organization, is, of course, not a party to the Geneva Conventions and does not possess forces of its own. It is therefore primarily up to the states who provide the contingents to instruct their troops beforehand, as they should in fact do with all their armed forces. It is the states who are responsible for any breaches of international humanitarian law which the soldiers they provide commit, and they are equally responsible for the punishment and suppression of such breaches. However, the Secretary-General and, especially, the military commander at the head of the troops, have a considerable role to play in the co-ordination and practical observation of these directives, and the maintenance of discipline.

The obligation on the UN forces to observe the fundamental principles of the Geneva Conventions can hardly be questioned today, since they are in force in nearly every state. What is more debatable, however, is the question of the Protocols additional to those Conventions, adopted on 10 June 1977 but not yet in force.¹

It would seem in any case that the UN forces should take account of the principles which inspired the Protocols, worked out and adopted by consensus by the representatives of the great majority of the international community.

A problem could arise if some states instructed their contingents according to the Protocols and others refused to do so. This problem remains theoretical, inasmuch as the UN forces may be called upon to apply the generally accepted fundamental principles. It could possibly, however, arise at the command level, in which case it should be resolved by the PKO with the agreement of all the parties concerned.

Position of the Red Cross

The ICRC has not remained indifferent to the question of the application of humanitarian law applicable in armed conflicts by UN forces engaged in PKOs.

It has brought the problem to the attention of the Secretary-general through representation made in 1956, 1961, 1964 and, most recently, during the PKO in Lebanon, by letter on 10 April 1978. These representations have been favourably received and the obligation on UN forces to observe the principles of humanitarian law was recognised.

In addition, the ICRC, in a memorandum of 10 November 1961, reminded the governments of States Parties to the Geneva Conventions

¹ Up to now, Protocol I has been signed by 52 states, Protocol II by 49; both have been ratified by Ghana and Libya and will thus come into force on 7 December 1978.

and members of the UN of their responsibilities concerning the application of these Conventions when they provide a contingent to the UN.

Finally we would mention that the Twentieth International Red Cross Conference in Vienna, in 1965, adopted a resolution (No. XXV) entitled: "Application of the Geneva Conventions by the United Nations Emergency Forces", in which it makes three recommendations. They are still very much up to date and will serve as our conclusions:

The XXth International Conference of the Red Cross recommends:

- 1. that appropriate arrangements be made to ensure that armed forces placed at the disposal of the United Nations observe the provisions of the Geneva Conventions and be protected by them;*
- 2. that the Governments of countries making contingents available to the United Nations give their troops—in view of the paramount importance of the question—adequate instruction in the Geneva Conventions before they leave their country of origin as well as orders to comply with these Conventions;*
- 3. that the authorities responsible for the contingents agree to take all the necessary measures to prevent and suppress any breaches of the said Conventions.*

Yves SANDOZ

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

PROTOCOLS COME INTO FORCE IN DECEMBER 1978

After the Republic of Ghana, the first State to ratify, in February 1978, the two Protocols additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949, the Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, on 7 June 1978, deposited with the Swiss Government its instrument of accession to Protocols I and II.

Pursuant to their provisions, therefore, the Protocols will come into force on 7 December 1978, six months after the deposit of the instrument of accession by Libya.

The entry into force of the Protocols is an event of great consequence which we believe should be given prominence. There is no doubt that in the near future many States will add their names to the list of parties to the Protocols, a veritable roll of honour of humanity, and commit themselves to apply these fundamental provisions.

Declaration of Succession to the Geneva Conventions by the Kingdom of Tonga

In a letter which reached the President of the Swiss Confederation on 13 April 1978, the Kingdom of Tonga declared that it considered itself bound by the four Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949 for the protection of war victims, by virtue of the prior ratification of the Conventions by the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

By this declaration, the Kingdom of Tonga became a Party to the said Conventions as from the date of its independence, 4 June 1970.

NOMINATION TO THE EXECUTIVE BOARD

At its meeting on 6 July, the ICRC Assembly appointed to the Executive Board, for a term of office expiring at the end of 1980, Mr. Jakob Burckhardt, who has been a member of the Assembly since 1975. By closely associating him in its activity, the ICRC will benefit more regularly from his wide experience.

*EXTERNAL ACTIVITIES***Africa****Southern Africa****Two ICRC missions**

The ICRC recently sent two missions to southern Africa, as part of its campaign to make its activities better known and to promote humanitarian principles in the regions where conflicts have been taking place.

The ICRC Director of the Department of Principles and Law, Mr. Jacques Moreillon, went first to Tanzania and was received in audience on 28 July by the Head of State, President Julius Nyerere. Mr. Moreillon was accompanied by Mr. Kai Warras of the League of Red Cross Societies, Mrs. Mackeja, Secretary General of the Tanzania Red Cross Society, and Mr. Frédéric Steinemann, ICRC regional delegate for southern Africa. He gave a general account of the ICRC's activities in various parts of Africa and described its efforts to bring relief to the conflict victims and the difficult circumstances under which sometimes its delegates had to perform their tasks. Mr. Moreillon stressed that it was a matter of urgency for the signatories to the Geneva Conventions to ratify the 1977 Protocols, so that the ICRC should be empowered to extend its humanitarian mission to all victims.

Mr. Moreillon next went to Botswana and Zambia. On 16 August, he was received at Gaborone by the President of Botswana, Sir Seretse Khama, and Lady Khama, President of the National Red Cross Society. On 21 August, Mr. Moreillon had a meeting with the Head of State of Zambia, Mr. Kenneth Kaunda, at Lusaka.

The three Heads of State all showed keen interest in the work of the ICRC and urged it to continue its humanitarian programmes in Africa, particularly in its southern part.

* * *

The head of the ICRC Press and Information Division, Mr. Alain Modoux, made two journeys to southern Africa, once in August and again in September. The purpose of his visits was to organize a large-scale information campaign covering seven countries, namely Rhodesia/Zimbabwe, the Republic of South Africa and the five countries known as the "front-line States".

It is hoped that, by the output of information material specially adapted to local conditions, all sections of the population—civil and military authorities, leaders of the liberation movements, schoolchildren, university and higher institute students, civilians, and all combatants—will come to know the Red Cross.

The ICRC sent three of its staff to deal with questions regarding information and public relations. In September two meetings were organized in Lusaka and in Salisbury, in which African communication specialists took part, to arrange the details of the information campaign and start it in the various countries concerned.

Repatriation of prisoners of war

On 2 September 1978 the People's Republic of Angola and the Republic of South Africa carried out, under the auspices of the ICRC, the repatriation of eight South african prisoners of war detained in Angola and three Cuban prisoners of war detained in the Republic of South Africa.

By this act the two parties expressed their determination to respect the letter and the spirit of the Third Geneva Convention.

At this operation, the two parties took the opportunity to hold a meeting at which a number of questions of common interest were discussed. The two parties, as well as the ICRC, expressed their gratitude to the authorities and the population for their active contribution to the success of this operation.

Tanzania

From 23 to 25 July 1978, a co-ordination meeting, sponsored by the Tanzania Red Cross Society and the ICRC, was held at Dar-es-Salaam, attended by representatives of the Red Cross Societies and Red Cross groups of Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland and Zambia and by delegates of the Ministry of Health of the Republic of Mozambique,

no Red Cross association having yet taken shape in Mozambique. A delegation from the League of Red Cross Societies was present as an observer.

The purpose of the meeting was to study various ways and means for Red Cross Societies to go to the aid of the victims of the conflicts in various areas and to ensure co-ordination between their own activities and the ICRC's emergency operations. The meeting produced a constructive exchange of ideas and suggestions.

On the same occasion, at a meeting with the representatives of various national liberation movements, the roles of the ICRC and of the Red Cross Societies were explained and reasons given why it was necessary to support their humanitarian action.

At this co-ordination meeting, the participants decided to reinforce their action to help the victims of armed conflicts in southern Africa, and to examine how they could take part in all or some of the following activities: various forms of supplementary assistance for refugees and displaced persons; the setting up of special actions in aid of war disabled persons; the organization of tracing agencies; and the dissemination of knowledge of the Geneva Conventions, of the principles of the Red Cross and of the Red Cross in general.

Mozambique

The medical programme for the victims of the conflict in Rhodesia/Zimbabwe, set up jointly by the ICRC, the Government of Mozambique and ZANU, is working according to plan. In July the first ten amputees fitted with artificial limbs had completed their treatment and thirty other persons had been registered for similar prostheses.

During a mission performed in August at the request of the Mozambican Ministry of Health, Dr. Philippe Girod, of the ICRC Medical Division, found that the programme was working satisfactorily. In addition, he examined with Mozambican officials the possibility of the ICRC's taking part in further medical programmes.

Angola

At the invitation of the newly created "Angolan Red Cross Society", Dr. Rémi Russbach, ICRC Chief Medical Officer, and Mr. Thierry Germond, delegate, carried out a mission in Angola, from 20 August to 3 September 1978. The ICRC delegates visited various medical establishments at Luanda and had discussions with the Red Cross leaders.

They were also received by Mr. Paulo Jorge, Minister of External Relations, with whom they conferred on various humanitarian problems.

Two assistance projects were examined: to provide aid for the war disabled, in the Huambo area, and to constitute a stock of emergency supplies for the National Society. Accordingly, an initial consignment of emergency medical supplies, to a value of 10,000 Swiss francs, was despatched to the "Angolan Red Cross".

On 30 August the Angolan Head of State, President Agostinho Netto, received Mr. Germond, ICRC delegate, with whom he discussed the possible accession of Angola to the Geneva Conventions.

Dr. Russbach and Mr. Germond also discussed with SWAPO representatives a number of assistance projects under consideration.

Rhodesia/Zimbabwe

In the July-August 1978 issue of *International Review*, it was mentioned that in Rhodesia/Zimbabwe the ICRC had resumed all its activities, some of which had been suspended after the murder of three of its staff in May. Delegates were given strict security instructions and most of their movements are now by air. This has entailed the suspension of visits to certain areas, which can only be reached by road.

These restrictions, however, do not mean that ICRC assistance activities have been stopped. On the contrary, relief supplies worth 140,000 Swiss francs were distributed by the ICRC in July, mostly to the "protected villages".

In the new programme of aid, worked out in August, not only is assistance distributed to the civilians in the "protected villages" and "Tribal Trust Lands", but relief supplies and medical care will be provided for the inhabitants of the African districts in the towns, where thousands of people have flocked, fleeing the rural areas affected by the war. In these places, the ICRC is distributing essential articles (food, blankets, soap, etc.), and its mobile medical teams are moving from one district to another giving medical consultations at regular intervals. One of the difficulties is to find accommodation for displaced persons; the ICRC is actively searching for a swift solution to this problem.

The question of persons detained in connection with the events continues to be a matter of concern to the ICRC.

East Africa

Somalia

Mr. Richard Pestalozzi, Special Assistant to the President of the ICRC and member of the Executive Board, was in Somalia from 20 to

23 August 1978, and was received in Mogadishu by the President of the Somali Democratic Republic, Mr. Mohammed Siad Barre. Mr. Pestalozzi described the role and work of the ICRC in assisting and protecting the victims of armed conflicts. He then met various members of the Somali Government, including the Minister of Education, Mr. Aden Mohamed Ali, with whom he discussed the question of the spread of knowledge of the Geneva Conventions.

Mr. Pestalozzi conferred also with the leading officials of the Somali Red Crescent, who expressed their thanks to the ICRC for its work for the benefit of the Ogaden conflict victims.

Mr. Pestalozzi next visited the Martini Hospital where an ICRC medical team is co-operating with the authorities and National Society in a surgical programme. A specialist in maxillo-facial surgery was in Somalia from May to August and carried out about fifty operations. At this hospital there are two physiotherapists, sent by the Danish and Norwegian National Societies for the rehabilitation of war disabled soldiers and a German male nurse for the care of paraplegics.

West and Central Africa

Zaire

The emergency phase of ICRC aid in Shaba was brought to a close at the end of August. It begun immediately after the events which had so grievously affected the civilian inhabitants of the province and lasted for three months and a half. During this period, the ICRC distributed 436 tons of food, medicaments, blankets and clothing, to a value of 569,000 Swiss francs. Medical supplies were sent to the hospitals in Kolwezi, Mutshasha, Dilolo, Kasembe and Nseke. The ICRC was instrumental in reactivating a score of rural dispensaries.

ICRC work will continue in Zaire, but in Shaba Province it will restrict its action to the despatch of medical consignments to a number of dispensaries.

As regards its protection activities, the ICRC is continuing its efforts to obtain access to persons detained because of the Shaba incidents or for State security reasons. As a first step, the Zaire Government agreed on the principle of allowing the ICRC to visit the camp at Lokandu after August. The ICRC is hoping that its delegates will soon be able to carry out this visit.

Following the amnesty decreed by the Zaire Government and the agreement it signed with the Government of the People's Republic of Angola, several thousand refugees have now returned to Zaire.

Chad

Despite the often trying working conditions caused by transport and other logistic difficulties, the ICRC delegates based at Faya-Largeau carried on their assistance and protection activities for the prisoners of war in the hands of the FROLINAT. In July, they visited six camps holding 447 prisoners and distributed twenty tons of meat, flour, millet, sugar, oil and tomatoes. Depending on the accessibility of the camps, the food supplied was for one or for two months.

About twenty camps holding approximately 2,500 prisoners of war, some of whom have their families with them, are currently visited by the ICRC.

The most important task of the local bureaux of the Central Tracing Agency in Chad consists in forwarding family messages exchanged by the prisoners of war and their relatives in the south. Two more delegates have been despatched by the ICRC as reinforcements for its staff in Faya and N'Djamena.

In September, the ICRC succeeded for the first time in reuniting the dispersed members of a Chad family. A woman and two of her children, who happened to be in an area under FROLINAT control, joined her husband and remaining four children in N'Djamena.

The ICRC hopes that the two parties to the conflict, mindful of their humanitarian duties, will facilitate its task with a view to settling further urgent cases of members of families wishing to be reunited.

Latin America

Nicaragua

The combats in Nicaragua which broke out at the end of August called for emergency action by the ICRC. In conformity with its traditional role as a neutral intermediary, the ICRC despatched Mr. Raymond Chevalley, its regional delegate for Central America and the Caribbean, to the Nicaraguan capital. On his arrival in Managua on 31 August, Mr. Chevalley immediately got in touch with the Nicaraguan Red Cross

and government authorities, with the aim of co-ordinating assistance. The National Society, which had been active at the time of the seizure of hostages at the Managua National Palace on 22 August, had already had contacts with Mr. Jürg Vittani, Director of the League of Red Cross Societies Relief Supplies Bureau, who happened to be in Managua at the time.

On 12 September, Mr. Chevalley was received in audience by President Anastasio Somoza, who assured him the ICRC mission would enjoy his full support. With regard to protection, the ICRC was granted authorization by President Somoza to visit all persons held in detention, whether arrested before or after the outbreak of the conflict. The first visit by ICRC delegates was made on 26 September to a place of detention in Managua, where they saw 117 detainees.

For assistance, on the basis of estimates made by Mr. Chevalley and Dr. Raymond Birchler, medical delegate, who had joined the regional delegate in Managua on 9 September, the ICRC launched an appeal for 756,500 Swiss francs, needed to meet the situation and to assist the National Society. Although the fighting gradually died down, the humanitarian needs increased considerably within a very short time, exceeding the National Society's resources, and it was estimated that by the end of September there were in Nicaragua 25,000 displaced persons who had fled their homes during the combats and more than 9,000 others who had taken refuge in neighbouring countries, most of them in Honduras.

The ICRC, therefore, decided to increase its staff in Managua and on 23 September sent a delegate specialized in relief activities, a delegate specialized in prison visits, and a medical delegate. It also made a further appeal for more funds, on the basis of estimates calling for an expenditure of 2.2 million Swiss francs over the next three months. Two million francs will be spent on purchases of food and the remainder on medicaments and surgical equipment.

During the fighting, the ICRC, working closely with the National Red Cross Society, organized convoys to several towns for the evacuation of non-combatants (mainly women and children). It was during one of these hazardous operations that two young Nicaraguan Red Cross voluntary workers, José Dolores Estrada Granizo and Martin Alberto Flores Salazar, were killed when their vehicle, part of a Nicaraguan Red Cross convoy, was attacked on the road from Managua to Leon. All the vehicles in the convoy were conspicuously marked with the red cross.

This tragic incident led the ICRC to repeat its appeal to all the parties involved to respect the mission and the emblem of the Red Cross. The

ICRC regional delegate, Mr. Chevalley, had previously asked that Red Cross humanitarian activities should be respected and protected.

The two international bodies of the Red Cross were deeply distressed by the murder of the two Red Cross workers while carrying out their humanitarian tasks. In their messages to the families of the deceased and to the Nicaraguan Red Cross, the ICRC and the League paid tribute to the courage and devotion displayed by all the members of the National Society and stressed once again their support to the Nicaraguan Red Cross in the splendid work it was performing in these difficult times.

Argentina

During July and August, ICRC delegates continued their activities to protect and assist detainees in Argentina. They visited in the course of these two months seven places of detention, where they saw some 2,000 detainees.

Relief supplies were distributed to needy families of detainees and to the detainees themselves.

In August, 839 such families in Argentina received aid parcels to a value of 13,845 US dollars. Assistance to the detainees amounted to 1,500 US dollars.

Chile

Eight places of detention containing a total of 50 detainees were visited in July and August by the ICRC delegate in Chile. During this period the ICRC continued to provide aid to needy families of detainees. In July it distributed 14,689 US dollars' worth to approximately 3,100 persons of this category and 590 US dollars' worth to the detainees.

Europe

ICRC President in USSR

The President of the ICRC, Mr. Alexandre Hay, went on a mission to the USSR from 18 to 27 September. He was accompanied by Mr. J. P. Hocké, Director of ICRC Operations, and Mr. P. Grand d'Hauteville, regional delegate for Europe.

The President of the ICRC had various talks with Mr. V. A. Baltiyski, President of the Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies of the Soviet Union, Mr. I. A. Teterine, Liaison Officer to the ICRC, and with other senior officials of the National Society. He also met Mr. V. Kirilline, Vice-President of the Council and President of the State Committee for Science and Technology, Mr. D. D. Venediktov, Vice-Minister for Health, Mr. S. B. Kozirev, Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs, and other representatives of the Soviet authorities.

The conversations dealt with subjects of common interest, particularly the various ICRC activities throughout the world. The Alliance expressed the desire to co-operate more closely with the ICRC in its work in the field, mainly by financial contributions for our institution's activity in Latin America.

Mission to Cyprus and Greece

During the first fortnight of September, Melchior Borsinger, ICRC Delegate General for Europe and North America, and Lix Simonius, Delegate, went on mission to Cyprus where they had interviews with many Greek-Cypriot and Turkish-Cypriot politicians and with Red Cross Society leaders. They also visited Greek-Cypriots still living in the north of the island.

A further ICRC mission to Cyprus is planned for the beginning of December.

Mr. Borsinger then went to Greece, and from 13 to 15 September conferred with the Hellenic Red Cross Society. He visited also the Red Cross Centre for girl students at Kalavryta in Peloponnesus.

Asia

Thailand

In July and August ICRC delegates in Thailand continued visiting detained refugees arrested for illegal entry into the country. They made 92 visits, during those two months, to detention centres and police stations and saw nearly 4,000 such detainees. As usual, they distributed relief supplies during their visits.

The head of the delegation, Mr. F. Amar, was in the north-east region from 18 to 20 September and discussed with representatives

of various voluntary agencies problems occurring in the provision of assistance to refugees. He also visited the Swiss Red Cross ophthalmological team working among the refugees in the Nong Khai region.

Viet Nam

Since mid-July, the ICRC has been involved in a further series of repatriation flights from Vietnam to Taiwan. These operations, negotiated with the authorities in both countries, should enable some 1,700 Taiwanese who had been resident so far in Vietnam to return to Taiwan.

In July and August 904 people left Ho-Chi-Minh City for Taipeh in six flights organized under ICRC auspices.

A seventh flight took place on 21 September with 150 passengers.

It should be made clear that the ICRC is not involved in the transfer of people of Chinese origin from Vietnam to the People's Republic of China.

Philippines

Since the beginning of August a team of ICRC delegates in the Philippines has been visiting places of detention. In 17 places of detention under civilian and military authority they saw about 1,000 persons detained for political reasons.

Since 5 September, the delegates have been on the island of Mindanao, in the south of the Philippine archipelago. Here they have visited eleven penitentiary establishments in which there were 1,095 detainees, also held for political reasons. In addition, the delegates visited the local Red Cross and assessed the needs of persons displaced by the fighting between the Government forces and the guerilleros.

The ICRC is providing supplies for the victims of this fighting. So far this year, it has shipped 1,581 tons of rice and 200 tons of powdered milk donated by the EEC; these supplies are distributed by the National Society.

Iran

From April to the end of June two teams of ICRC delegates and doctors carried out the third series of visits to places of detention in Teheran and the provinces. They went to 19 places of detention in

which there were 2,040 people detained for political reasons, including subversion.

From July to September further visits were made to persons arrested in connection with recent events and before the declaration of martial law. In these visits, the delegates saw 428 recently arrested persons, most of them in Teheran.

On 22 and 23 September, in a prison in Teheran, the ICRC delegates visited 162 recently arrested people, 40 of them under martial law. Upon the declaration of that emergency measure, the ICRC had requested the Iranian authorities to allow it to extend its protection to all persons arrested and detained as a consequence of recent events. Negotiations are still going on to obtain permission to visit such detainees in provincial prisons.

Middle East

Lebanon

Since the beginning of July, as mentioned in our previous issue, intensive fighting has been going on in East Beirut, necessitating increased activity by the ICRC delegation. In July and August, the delegation delivered to hospitals and dispensaries in the combat zones medical supplies to a value of 158,000 francs.

In the same two months the delegates removed to safety several groups of people who had been blocked without food and medicines in houses surrounded by snipers.

These various operations were carried out despite the serious risks to the delegation personnel.

At the end of August tension was still running high in East Beirut. The delegation organized itself for emergency, so as to be able, in close co-operation with the Lebanese Red Cross, to continue working effectively should the situation deteriorate even more. In the Ashrafieh district, in a building which has been reinforced, it has installed a large dispensary to which the wounded may easily be brought for attention and hospitalization.

The situation did worsen in September. Fighting became even more violent. Shells hit several hospitals causing death and wounds among the patients and staff, and the ICRC "Emergency Centre" has rendered signal service by taking in the wounded.

On 2 October, the ICRC launched the following appeal:

The International Committee of the Red Cross is alarmed at the worsening situation in Lebanon. Fighting has resumed, Beirut is again under indiscriminate shelling, and once more the civilian population is in the thick of the battle and suffering heavy loss of life. The activity of hospitals, dispensaries, ambulances and medical services generally has been brought to a standstill by artillery fire.

The ICRC urgently appeals to the belligerents to take measures immediately to ensure that hospitals and medical personnel may continue their work unimpeded and in safety, to agree upon general or at least local truces to permit endangered civilians to seek safety elsewhere, and to cease forthwith the indiscriminate shelling of the civilian population.

The ICRC and the National Society are also concerned for several hundred thousand inhabitants of Beirut who in July fled their homes to seek refuge in the mountains; with the approach of winter, these people are facing serious problems (lodging, supplies, schooling, and so forth).

Nor has the northern part of the country been spared serious fighting. ICRC delegates and Lebanese Red Cross relief workers have had to carry out several missions in villages in the region to treat the sick people, evacuate the injured, seek missing persons and provide dispensaries with medical supplies.

In the south of the country, five persons who had been detained in Israel since the March 1978 events were repatriated. The operation took place on 1 September at Ras Nakura, under ICRC auspices.

Jordan

Two operations took place in August across the Allenby Bridge in the presence of ICRC delegates. On 17 August an Israeli national of South African origin who had wandered into Jordan went back to Israel and on 31 August a Jordanian who had been detained in Israel was repatriated. On 22 September another detainee released by the Israeli authorities was escorted to the Jordan authorities.

Arab Republic of Egypt

On 8 August the ICRC delegation delivered to the monks of the Orthodox Convent of St. Catherine, in the Sinai, 25 tons of food and 25 tons of cement, both from the Arab Republic of Egypt.

Yemen Arab Republic

Delegate Fred Isler was in the Yemen Arab Republic from 11 July to 3 August. He met several members of the Government and Red Crescent leaders at Sana'a.

He also visited two prisons in which there were 500 detainees, 80 of them held for political reasons. He provided supplies for distribution in the prisons.

Israel and the occupied territories

Under ICRC auspices, the return to Cairo University of students resident in the occupied territories of Gaza and Sinai, after their summer vacations, began at the end of August. By 28 September, in nine operations, more than 4,000 students went back to the Egyptian capital. Other operations are planned for October.

The ICRC also reunited families whose members were in the occupied territory and the Arab Republic of Egypt. In all, 447 people crossed towards Gaza and 56 others towards Cairo to return to their families.

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On 12 September, 23 students from occupied Golan and one from Gaza went to Damascus to continue their studies.

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On 28 August, a detainee released by the Israeli authorities was repatriated to the Arab Republic of Egypt under ICRC auspices.

IN THE RED CROSS WORLD

CENTENARY OF THE BULGARIAN RED CROSS

The Bulgarian Red Cross Society is one of the oldest public service organizations in the country: it was founded as a committee in Sofia in October 1878, just after the signature of the Treaty of Berlin which ended the Russian-Turkish war and made Bulgaria an autonomous principality. Many of the local aid committees set up independently during the war in provincial towns to give aid to sick or wounded soldiers gradually united with the committee in Sofia. On 1 March 1884, the Bulgarian Government officially ratified the Geneva Convention; and in the same year it was represented at the Third International Conference of the Red Cross. Finally, on 27 July/8 August 1885, the Bulgarian Minister of Foreign Affairs wrote to the ICRC that "eminent citizens of Sofia... have taken the step of creating a Bulgarian Red Cross Society and have drafted Statutes, which have been approved by the Government of the Principality and of which I have the honour to send you the translation... The committee is composed as follows...". The conditions for recognition being thus fulfilled, the ICRC duly recognized the Bulgarian Red Cross and announced the fact to other Societies in a circular dated 20 October 1885, signed by Gustave Moynier, ICRC President, and Gustave Ador, Secretary.

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The new Society had not awaited recognition by Geneva to establish and develop its organization. Having seen Russian Red Cross medical teams at work during the war and having appreciated the immense services that they had given to soldiers and civilians alike, the population of

Bulgaria realized the need for a National Red Cross Society of its own. With the encouragement of public figures from various walks of life—medicine, the Church, the Government—the Bulgarian Red Cross soon had sections in all the principal towns.

In view of the unsettled political climate, the Society felt that its first duty was to prepare for action in the event of war, a secondary aim being to provide relief in natural disasters. This attitude was justified almost immediately: at the end of 1885 the Serbo-Bulgarian war broke out and the Bulgarian Red Cross was ready to serve. It was able to organize fourteen hospitals, to help equip twenty-seven others, to set up fifteen emergency dressing stations and to assist in many relief operations. The war provided a fine example of the spirit of mutual aid existing within the Red Cross Movement, as the National Societies of Russia, Greece, Romania, Belgium, France, Italy and Great Britain sent medical missions to Bulgaria, where they did admirable work ¹.

Once this war was over, the Bulgarian Red Cross pursued its efforts to enlarge its range of action. The chief concern at that time was to train nurses. In 1895, at the suggestion of the ladies' committee of the Red Cross, a course was organized and fifteen nurses received training from Bulgarian doctors. Five years later, the first Bulgarian school for nurses, directed by two Russian nursing sisters, was created, at the same time as a hospital where the nurses could receive practical training. This establishment expanded rapidly and became the Red Cross Hospital, highly esteemed for the standard of training and nursing it provided.

The Society was prominent in medical assistance during the fighting that followed the declaration of independence in 1908: the Balkan War in 1912, the Inter-allied War in 1913, and the First World War. While numerous teams from several foreign Red Cross Societies supplied help during these conflicts (during the Balkan War, eleven Societies sent medical missions), the Bulgarian Red Cross itself was able, when the need was greatest, to send medical delegations to other countries: during the Russo-Japanese War, 1904-1905, and during the First World War, in 1915 and 1916, for example.

In the months following the 1918 Armistice, the Society took an active part in repatriating Russian and Bulgarian prisoners of war and also cared for refugees. When famine struck the Volga basin in 1921, a

¹ *Bulletin international des Sociétés de secours aux militaires blessés*, ICRC, Geneva, 1886, pp. 251-254, contains an account of the journey made by the delegate of the Russian Red Cross, with complete equipment for a 300-bed hospital, from Odessa to Sofia in the depths of a bitter winter. See also *Bulletin international...* 1886, pp. 164-170.

special committee formed by the Bulgarian Red Cross collected 2 million leva which it handed over to the Nansen Committee; the Society also opened a canteen in the Saratov region and for two years provided food for two thousand children. Some years later, in 1928, it took a major part in the relief operations after the terrible earthquake that affected Bulgaria.

All these activities were exceptional, made necessary by external occurrences, but the Bulgarian Red Cross also had its normal, long-term activities: training courses for home nurses, first-aid courses, exhibitions on health problems, the collection of funds to finance orphanages, sanatoria, camps for children and special hospitals for the treatment of tuberculosis. The Junior section of the Society was founded in 1921 and quickly became a vital feature in popular health education.

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Today the Bulgarian Red Cross has about 2 million members. It is divided into 28 district committees, one for each of the country's administrative areas; these committees are subdivided into 212 town committees, 1050 village committees and 7120 basic units.

The supreme body of the Society is the Congress, which meets once five years. The day-to-day direction of the Society is carried out by the Central Committee of 139 members and the Executive Bureau of 17 persons nominated by the Central Committee.

A great part of the Society's present activities deal with health, under two different aspects: education of the population in health matters, and protection of health in order to increase the productivity of the population. To promote health education, the Society organizes conferences and study groups, discussions, competitions, "health days" and "health weeks". In the schools, the Junior Red Cross makes a large contribution to the health education of the younger generation. The Society publishes a journal, entitled "Health", which is very popular. In direct measures for the protection of health, the Bulgarian Red Cross is extremely active through some 65,000 volunteers, who carry out preventive medical examinations among the population and health checks in factories, mines, schools, public and communal establishments.

As part of this general concern with the health of the nation, the Bulgarian Red Cross organizes such campaigns as collecting blood (thousands of volunteers donate blood every year) and aid in accidents at work, on the roads, in the mountains or on water. All these activities require much practical organization. For example, to deal with accidents at work, the Society has created 50,000 small medical posts; on the roads

it has 344 first-aid patrols; there are 800 volunteers, including doctors, engineers, etc., ready to help in accidents in the mountains; over the last ten years, 15,000 people have been trained to give help in boating or swimming accidents. To co-ordinate these varied activities and to respond swiftly to distress calls, the Bulgarian Red Cross has its own radio network.

In the life of the Bulgarian nation, the Red Cross Society plays a major role and enjoys the confidence of the population and the authorities. Press, radio and television provide effective support. Its services have been recognized by the Council of State of the People's Republic of Bulgaria, which has conferred on the Society one of the country's highest honours.

The Bulgarian Red Cross is also active in the international sphere. It has hosted several international meetings of the Red Cross. Every two years it organizes an International Festival of Red Cross and Health Films, at Varna. In addition to the friendly and constructive relationship it maintains, as a member of the International Red Cross, with the ICRC and the League, the Bulgarian Society has direct contacts with other National Societies, to which it is prompt to send material aid in the event of natural disaster or armed conflict. In this practical way the Society helps to promote friendship, neighbourly relations and the spirit of peace among nations and peoples, thereby living up to the motto "Per humanitatem ad pacem".¹

The *International Review of the Red Cross* is happy to congratulate the Bulgarian Red Cross Society on its centenary and to offer good wishes for the future.

¹ The article has been written on the basis of a text supplied by the Bulgarian Red Cross and of ICRC documents.

BOOKS AND REVIEWS

FROM SARAJEVO TO HIROSHIMA

The second part of the History of the ICRC

We are pleased to announce that the second part of the History of the ICRC, entitled *From Sarajevo to Hiroshima*, has just come off the press. This book, in French, by André Durand ¹, is the continuation of the first volume of that History "From Solferino to Tsushima", written by the late Pierre Boissier.

Sarajevo - Hiroshima: the two names are permanently associated with fateful events in the history of mankind. The first one seems to mark the close of the already far-away XIXth century, while the other heralded in the contemporary atomic era; yet little more than thirty years separate the two.

During that period, mankind passed through many tragic situations: two world wars, local and colonial wars, uprisings and revolutions, upsurge and confrontation of the totalitarian ideologies. At the same time, there was the formidable development of technology; from animal traction the world progressed to communication by fast aeroplane and, in time of war, from hand-thrown bombs to the atomic explosion.

In all these upheavals, the ICRC was present and active, trying to alleviate the suffering they were causing mankind. It had to adapt itself to the new situations, developing from a small nine-member committee to an international organization covering the whole world, taking care of the wounded military personnel, distributing supplies to the civilian population, visiting the prisoners of war, its humanitarian activities being well ahead of the international legislation which the ICRC resolutely undertook to develop.

In his big and beautiful volume, Mr. André Durand recalls all that period with all its changes, drawing on the enormous and still almost unexplored documentation of the ICRC archives. Anyone interested in the Red Cross movement or in contemporary history will find Durand's book fascinating reading.

¹ André Durand: "Histoire du CICR, II: De Sarajevo à Hiroshima", Institut Henry-Dunant, Genève, 1978.

EXTRACT FROM THE STATUTES OF
THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

ADOPTED 21 JUNE 1973

ART. 1. — *International Committee of the Red Cross*

1. The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), founded in Geneva in 1863 and formally recognized in the Geneva Conventions and by International Conferences of the Red Cross, shall be an independent organization having its own Statutes.

2. It shall be a constituent part of the International Red Cross.¹

ART. 2. — *Legal Status*

As an association governed by Articles 60 and following of the Swiss Civil Code, the ICRC shall have legal personality.

ART. 3. — *Headquarters and Emblem*

The headquarters of the ICRC shall be in Geneva.

Its emblem shall be a red cross on a white ground. Its motto shall be *Inter arma caritas*.

ART. 4. — *Role*

1. The special role of the ICRC shall be:

- (a) to maintain the fundamental principles of the Red Cross as proclaimed by the XXth International Conference of the Red Cross;
- (b) to recognize any newly established or reconstituted National Red Cross Society which fulfils the conditions for recognition in force, and to notify other National Societies of such recognition;
- (c) to undertake the tasks incumbent on it under the Geneva Conventions, to work for the faithful application of these Conventions and to take cognizance of any complaints regarding alleged breaches of the humanitarian Conventions;
- (d) to take action in its capacity as a neutral institution, especially in case of war, civil war or internal strife; to endeavour to ensure at all times that the military and civilian victims of such conflicts and of their direct results receive protection and assistance, and to serve in humanitarian matters, as an intermediary between the parties;
- (e) to ensure the operation of the Central Information Agencies provided for in the Geneva Conventions;
- (f) to contribute, in view of such conflicts, to the preparation and development of medical personnel and medical equipment, in co-operation with the Red Cross organizations, the medical services of the armed forces, and other competent authorities;
- (g) to work for the continual improvement of humanitarian international law and for the better understanding and diffusion of the Geneva Conventions and to prepare for their possible extension;
- (h) to accept the mandates entrusted to it by the International Conferences of the Red Cross.

2. The ICRC may also take any humanitarian initiative which comes within its role as a specifically neutral and independent institution and consider any question requiring examination by such an institution.

ART. 6 (first paragraph). — *Membership of the ICRC*

The ICRC shall co-opt its members from among Swiss citizens. It shall comprise fifteen to twenty-five members.

¹ The International Red Cross comprises the National Red Cross Societies, the International Committee of the Red Cross and the League of Red Cross Societies. The term "National Red Cross Societies" includes the Red Crescent Societies and the Red Lion and Sun Society.

ADDRESSES OF NATIONAL SOCIETIES

- AFGHANISTAN (Democratic Republic) — Afghan Red Crescent, Puli Artan, *Kabul*.
- PEOPLE'S SOCIALIST REPUBLIC OF ALBANIA — Albanian Red Cross, 35, Rruga e Barrikadave, *Tirana*.
- ALGERIA (Democratic and People's Republic) — Algerian Red Crescent Society, 15 bis, Boulevard Mohamed V, *Algiers*.
- ARGENTINA — Argentine Red Cross, H. Yrigoyen 2068, 1089 *Buenos Aires*.
- AUSTRALIA — Australian Red Cross, 122 Flinders Street, *Melbourne 3000*.
- AUSTRIA — Austrian Red Cross, 3 Gusshausstrasse, Postfach 39, *Vienna 4*.
- BAHAMAS — Bahamas Red Cross Society, P.O. Box N 91, *Nassau*.
- BAHRAIN — Bahrain Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 882, *Manama*.
- BANGLADESH — Bangladesh Red Cross Society, 34, Bangabandhu Avenue, *Dacca 2*.
- PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF BENIN — Red Cross of Benin, B.P. 1, *Porto Novo*.
- BELGIUM — Belgian Red Cross, 98 Chaussée de Vleurgat, 1050 *Brussels*.
- BOLIVIA — Bolivian Red Cross, Avenida Simón Bolívar, 1515, *La Paz*.
- BOTSWANA — Botswana Red Cross Society, Independence Avenue, P.O. Box 485, *Gaborone*.
- BRAZIL — Brazilian Red Cross, Praça Cruz Vermelha 10-12, *Rio de Janeiro*.
- BULGARIA — Bulgarian Red Cross, 1, Boul. Biruzov, *Sofia 27*.
- BURMA (Socialist Republic of the Union of) — Burma Red Cross, 42 Strand Road, Red Cross Building, *Rangoon*.
- BURUNDI — Red Cross Society of Burundi, rue du Marché 3, P.O. Box 324, *Bujumbura*.
- CAMEROON — Cameroon Red Cross Society, rue Henry-Dunant, P.O.B. 631, *Yaoundé*.
- CANADA — Canadian Red Cross, 95 Wellesley Street East, *Toronto, Ontario, M4Y 1H6*.
- CENTRAL AFRICAN EMPIRE — Central African Red Cross, B.P. 1428, *Bangui*.
- CHILE — Chilean Red Cross, Avenida Santa María 0150, Correo 21, Casilla 246V., *Santiago*.
- CHINA (People's Republic) — Red Cross Society of China, 22 Kanmien Hutung, *Peking, E*.
- COLOMBIA — Colombian Red Cross, Carrera 7a, 34-65, Apartado nacional 1110, *Bogotá D.E*.
- CONGO, PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF THE — Croix-Rouge Congolaise, place de la Paix, *Brazzaville*.
- COSTA RICA — Costa Rican Red Cross, Calle 14, Avenida 8, Apartado 1025, *San José*.
- CUBA — Cuban Red Cross, Calle 23 201 esq. N. Vedado, *Havana*.
- CZECHOSLOVAKIA — Czechoslovak Red Cross, Thunovska 18, 118 04 *Prague 1*.
- DENMARK — Danish Red Cross, Ny Vestergade 17, DK-1741 *Copenhagen K*.
- DOMINICAN REPUBLIC — Dominican Red Cross, Apartado Postal 1293, *Santo Domingo*.
- ECUADOR — Ecuadorian Red Cross, Calle de la Cruz Roja y Avenida Colombia, 118, *Quito*.
- EGYPT (Arab Republic of) — Egyptian Red Crescent Society, 34 rue Ramses, *Cairo*.
- EL SALVADOR — El Salvador Red Cross, 3a Avenida Norte y 3a Calle Poniente, *San Salvador, C.A.*
- ETHIOPIA — Ethiopian Red Cross, Ras Desta Damtew Avenue, *Addis Ababa*.
- FIJI — Fiji Red Cross Society, 193 Rodwell Road, P.O. Box 569, *Suva*.
- FINLAND — Finnish Red Cross, Tehtaankatu 1 A, Box 168, 00141 *Helsinki 14/15*.
- FRANCE — French Red Cross, 17 rue Quentin Bauchart, F-75384 *Paris CEDEX 08*.
- GAMBIA — The Gambia Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 472, *Banjul*.
- GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC — German Red Cross in the German Democratic Republic, Kaitzerstrasse 2, DDR 801 *Dresden 1*.
- GERMANY, FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF — German Red Cross in the Federal Republic of Germany, Friedrich-Ebert-Allee 71, 5300, *Bonn 1*, Postfach (D.B.R.).
- GHANA — Ghana Red Cross, National Headquarters, Ministries Annex A3, P.O. Box 835, *Accra*.
- GREECE — Hellenic Red Cross, rue Lycavittou 1, *Athens 135*.
- GUATEMALA — Guatemalan Red Cross, 3a Calle 8-40, Zona 1, *Ciudad de Guatemala*.
- GUYANA — Guyana Red Cross, P.O. Box 351, Eve Leary, *Georgetown*.
- HAITI — Haiti Red Cross, Place des Nations Unies, B.P. 1337, *Port-au-Prince*.
- HONDURAS — Honduran Red Cross, 7a Calle, 1a y 2a Avenidas, *Comayagüela, D.M.*
- HUNGARY — Hungarian Red Cross, V. Arany János utca 31, *Budapest V*, Mail Add.: 1367 *Budapest 5*, P. 249.
- ICELAND — Icelandic Red Cross, Nóatúni 21, *Reykjavik*.
- INDIA — Indian Red Cross, 1 Red Cross Road, *New Delhi 110001*.
- INDONESIA — Indonesian Red Cross, Jalan Abdul Muis 66, P.O. Box 2009, *Djakarta*.
- IRAN — Iranian Red Lion and Sun Society, Av. Villa, Carrefour Takhté Djamchid, *Teheran*.
- IRAQ — Iraqi Red Crescent, Al-Mansour, *Baghdad*.
- IRELAND — Irish Red Cross, 16 Merrion Square, *Dublin 2*.
- ITALY — Italian Red Cross, 12 via Toscana, *Rome*.
- IVORY COAST — Ivory Coast Red Cross Society, B.P. 1244, *Abidjan*.
- JAMAICA — Jamaica Red Cross Society, 76 Arnold Road, *Kingston 5*.
- JAPAN — Japanese Red Cross, 1-3 Shiba-Daimon 1-chome, Minato-Ku, *Tokyo 105*.
- JORDAN — Jordan National Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 10 001, *Amman*.
- KENYA — Kenya Red Cross Society, St. John's Gate, P.O. Box 40712, *Nairobi*.
- KOREA, DEMOCRATIC PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF — Red Cross Society of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, *Pyeongyang*.
- KOREA, REPUBLIC OF — The Republic of Korea National Red Cross, 32-3Ka Nam San-Dong, *Seoul*.
- KUWAIT — Kuwait Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 1350, *Kuwait*.
- LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC — Lao Red Cross, P.B. 650, *Vientiane*.
- LEBANON — Lebanese Red Cross, rue Spears, *Beirut*.
- LESOTHO — Lesotho Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 366, *Maseru*.

- LIBERIA** — Liberian National Red Cross, National Headquarters, 107 Lynch Street, P.O. Box 226, *Monrovia*.
- LIBYAN ARAB JAMAHIRIYA** — Libyan Arab Red Crescent, P.O. Box 541, *Benghazi*.
- LIECHTENSTEIN** — Liechtenstein Red Cross, *Vaduz*.
- LUXEMBOURG** — Luxembourg Red Cross, Parc de la Ville, C.P. 404, *Luxembourg*.
- MALAGASY REPUBLIC** — Red Cross Society of the Malagasy Republic, rue Patrice Lumumba, *Antananarivo*.
- MALAWI** — Malawi Red Cross, Hall Road, *Blantyre* (P.O. Box 30080, Chichiri, *Blantyre* 3).
- MALAYSIA** — Malaysian Red Crescent Society, 519 Jalan Belfield, *Kuala Lumpur* 08-03.
- MALI** — Mali Red Cross, B.P. 280, *Bamako*.
- MAURITANIA** — Mauritanian Red Crescent Society, B.P. 344, Avenue Gamal Abdel Nasser, *Nouakchott*.
- MAURITIUS** — Mauritius Red Cross, Ste Thérèse Street, *Curepipe*.
- MEXICO** — Mexican Red Cross, Avenida Ejército Nacional n° 1032, *México* 10 D.F.
- MONACO** — Red Cross of Monaco, 27 boul. de Suisse, *Monte Carlo*.
- MONGOLIA** — Red Cross Society of the Mongolian People's Republic, Central Post Office, Post Box 537, *Ulan Bator*.
- MOROCCO** — Moroccan Red Crescent, B.P. 189, *Rabat*.
- NEPAL** — Nepal Red Cross Society, Tahachal, P.B. 217, *Kathmandu*.
- NETHERLANDS** — Netherlands Red Cross, 27 Prinsessegracht, *The Hague*.
- NEW ZEALAND** — New Zealand Red Cross, Red Cross House, 14 Hill Street, *Wellington* 1. (P.O. Box 12-140, *Wellington North*.)
- NICARAGUA** — Nicaraguan Red Cross, D.N. Apartado 3279, *Managua*.
- NIGER** — Red Cross Society of Niger, B.P. 386, *Niamey*.
- NIGERIA** — Nigerian Red Cross Society, Eko Aketa Close, off St. Gregory Rd., P.O. Box 764, *Lagos*.
- NORWAY** — Norwegian Red Cross, Parkveien 33b, *Oslo*. Mail Add.: *Postboks 7034 H-Oslo* 3.
- PAKISTAN** — Pakistan Red Crescent Society, National Headquarters, 169, Sarwar Road, *Rawalpindi*.
- PANAMA** — Panamanian Red Cross, Apartado Postal 668, Zona 1, *Panamá*.
- PARAGUAY** — Paraguayan Red Cross, Brasil 216, *Asunción*.
- PERU** — Peruvian Red Cross, Jirón Chancay 881, *Lima*.
- PHILIPPINES** — Philippine National Red Cross, 860 United Nations Avenue, P.O.B. 280, *Manila* 2801.
- POLAND** — Polish Red Cross, Mokotowska 14, *Warsaw*.
- PORTUGAL** — Portuguese Red Cross, Jardim 9 Abril, 1 a 5, *Lisbon* 3.
- ROMANIA** — Red Cross of the Socialist Republic of Romania, Strada Biserica Amzei 29, *Bucarest*.
- SAN MARINO** — San Marino Red Cross, Palais gouvernemental, *San Marino*.
- SAUDI ARABIA** — Saudi Arabian Red Crescent *Riyadh*.
- SENEGAL** — Senegalese Red Cross Society, Bd Franklin-Roosevelt, P.O.B. 299, *Dakar*.
- SIERRA LEONE** — Sierra Leone Red Cross Society, 6A Liverpool Street, P.O.B. 427, *Freetown*.
- SINGAPORE** — Singapore Red Cross Society, 15 Penang Lane, *Singapore* 9.
- SOMALIA (DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC)** — Somali Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 937, *Mogadishu*.
- SOUTH AFRICA** — South African Red Cross, Cor. Kruis & Market Streets, P.O.B. 8726, *Johannesburg* 2001.
- SPAIN** — Spanish Red Cross, Eduardo Dato 16, *Madrid* 10.
- SRI LANKA** — Sri Lanka Red Cross Society, 106 Dharmapala Mawatha, *Colombo* 7.
- SUDAN** — Sudanese Red Crescent, P.O. Box 235, *Khartoum*.
- SWEDEN** — Swedish Red Cross, Fack, S-104 40 *Stockholm* 14.
- SWITZERLAND** — Swiss Red Cross, Taubenstrasse 8, B.P. 2699, *3001 Berne*.
- SYRIAN ARAB REPUBLIC** — Syrian Red Crescent, Bd Mahdi Ben Barake, *Damascus*.
- TANZANIA** — Tanzania Red Cross Society, Upanga Road, P.O.B. 1133, *Dar es Salaam*.
- THAILAND** — Thai Red Cross Society, Paribatra Building, Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, *Bangkok*.
- TOGO** — Togolese Red Cross Society, 51 rue Boko Soga, P.O. Box 655, *Lomé*.
- TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO** — Trinidad and Tobago Red Cross Society, Wrightson Road West, P.O. Box 357, *Port of Spain*, Trinidad, West Indies.
- TUNISIA** — Tunisian Red Crescent, 19 rue d'Angleterre, *Tunis*.
- TURKEY** — Turkish Red Crescent, Yenisehir, *Ankara*.
- UGANDA** — Uganda Red Cross, Nabunya Road, P.O. Box 494, *Kampala*.
- UNITED KINGDOM** — British Red Cross, 9 Grosvenor Crescent, *London, SW1X 7EJ*.
- UPPER VOLTA** — Upper Volta Red Cross, P.O.B. 340, *Ouagadougou*.
- URUGUAY** — Uruguayan Red Cross, Avenida 8 de Octubre 2990, *Montevideo*.
- U.S.A.** — American National Red Cross, 17th and D Streets, N.W., *Washington, D.C. 20006*.
- U.S.S.R.** — Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, I. Tcheremushkinskii proezd 5, *Moscow* 117036.
- VENEZUELA** — Venezuelan Red Cross, Avenida Andrés Bello No. 4, Apart. 3185, *Caracas*.
- VIET NAM, SOCIALIST REPUBLIC OF** — Red Cross of Viet Nam, 68 rue Bà-Triệu, *Hanoi*.
- YUGOSLAVIA** — Red Cross of Yugoslavia, Simina ulica broj 19, *Belgrade*.
- REPUBLIC OF ZAIRE** — Red Cross of the Republic of Zaire, 41 av. de la Justice, B.P. 1712, *Kinshasa*.
- ZAMBIA** — Zambia Red Cross, P.O. Box R.W.1, 2837 Brentwood Drive, *Lusaka*.